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MICROANALYTICAL TECHNIQUES AND EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES OF THE VOLATILE AND $f\text{O}_2$ HISTORY OF MAGMAS USING MELT INCLUSIONS



Ery C. Hughes

Supervisors: Jon D. Blundy, Heidi M. Mader, and Geoff Kilgour

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ABSTRACT

Melt inclusions are tiny pockets of melt trapped inside crystals, which allow us to sample the magma prior to eruption. Melt inclusion chemistry is used to infer magmatic processes that can help us to understand eruption dynamics and the role of volcanoes in the global volatile cycle. This thesis addresses three gaps in our current use of melt inclusions, which will help us to measure the oxygen fugacity and volatile content of magmas.

Firstly, many melt inclusions are too small to analyse for H₂O concentration using most microanalytical techniques. The electron probe is able to estimate the H₂O concentration of such melt inclusions using the volatiles by difference (VBD) technique, but a review of the literature data ($n = 524$) reveals that VBD consistently overestimates H₂O concentrations by ~ 1 wt% for hydrous silicate glass (> 2 wt% H₂O). Monte Carlo modelling using Win X-ray shows that the effects of sub-surface charging, whereby electrons are trapped within the glass structure during EPMA and impose an electric field in the sample, can account for this discrepancy. An accuracy of ± 0.1 wt% on VBD can be achieved by calibrating VBD using hydrous glass standards.

Secondly, the only technique currently available to measure the Fe oxidation state of melt inclusions (which is a proxy for oxygen fugacity) requires access to a synchrotron. Here, a technique using the electron probe is presented, which is much more widely accessible. The technique can be applied to basaltic and peralkaline hydrous glass compositions, which contain $\text{FeO}_T > 5$ wt%. The precision on $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ is ± 0.03 (10 wt% FeO_T and 0.5 $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$) and the accuracy is ± 0.1 , at a spatial resolution of ~ 20 – 60 μm . The controls on electron beam induced redox changes in silicate glass during analysis are also investigated.

Finally, carbon concentration measurements of melt inclusions alone are not able to constrain the initial carbon concentration of magmas. Groundwork towards using measurements of carbon isotope ratios of hydrous basaltic glasses are carried out, both technically using SIMS and experimentally to constrain key parameters required for interpreting natural data. Three new hydrous, carbon-rich, basaltic glass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ standards have been characterised as no basaltic glass standards of this type were previously available.

A correlative microanalysis study of melt inclusions (and minerals) from the 23 November 2013 paroxysmal eruption of Etna was undertaken using these new techniques and others such as Raman and SIMS. This is the first geochemical data available on this eruption, and the only melt inclusion data for the 2011–2013 eruptive sequence. An injection of deeper, more primitive magma mixed with a shallower, more evolved magma, which likely triggered the event. The melt composition is intermediate between the highly explosive, flank eruptions of 2001 and 2002–2003 and the effusive eruptions in 2004–2007. The volatile isotope data are consistent with other data available for Etna.

Author's declaration

I declare that the work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the requirements of the University's Regulations and Code of Practice for Research Degree Programmes and that it has not been submitted for any other academic award. Except where indicated by specific reference in the text, the work is the candidate's own work. Work done in collaboration with, or with the assistance of, others, is indicated as such. Any views expressed in the dissertation are those of the author.

Ery C. Hughes

March 1, 2019

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Aims and motivation

The aim of this thesis is to provide new techniques to quantify the oxygen fugacity (fO_2) and volatile composition (carbon and hydrogen) of magmas prior to eruption. These are key parameters required to understand the global volatile cycle and the dynamics of volcanic eruptions. This study focuses on microanalytical techniques that are used to analyse melt inclusions, tiny pockets of melt trapped inside crystals, which sample the magma during its ascent to the surface prior to eruption. Specifically, techniques are developed to analyse Fe oxidation state (which is a proxy for fO_2), hydrogen concentration, and initial carbon composition (using carbon isotope ratios) in basaltic magmas.

Melt inclusion analysis is often used to reconstruct the volatile content and fO_2 of magmas. However, there are two problems with this approach: (a) many eruptions contain crystals which only have small melt inclusions (e.g., $<20\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in diameter), which are too small to analyse using microanalytical techniques required for volatile analysis (e.g., SIMS and FTIR); and (b) the long-standing problem that the CO_2 concentration measured in these melt inclusions would not represent the initial CO_2 due to the low solubility of CO_2 in silicate melts and hence the possibility of degassing prior to melt inclusion trapping (e.g., Blundy et al., 2010; Wallace, 2005; Anderson and Brown, 1993). Therefore, in order to combat these problems, new analytical techniques are required to use melt inclusions to understand compositional changes prior to eruption.

Electron probe micro-analysis (EPMA) was chosen to analyse small melt inclusions. EPMA has excellent spatial resolution ($<1\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ in diameter using a field-emission gun electron source) and can analyse almost all the elements required in melt inclusions, including many of the volatiles of interest (e.g., S, Cl, and F). However, H cannot be detected directly by EPMA as it only contains a single electron in its electronic configuration, and thus the H concentration is inferred using the ‘volatiles by difference’ (VBD) technique (e.g., Devine et al., 1995; Nash, 1992; King et al., 2002). In the VBD technique, all possible elements in the glass are analysed and the difference between the measured total and 100 wt% is assumed to be H_2O . However, Chapter 2 finds that EPMA literature data consistently overestimates H_2O using VBD by $\sim 1\text{ wt\%}$. The effect of sub-surface charging during EPMA is modelled using the program Win X-ray (Demers and Gauvin, 2004; Gauvin et al., 2006). This shows that sub-surface charging can account for the overestimation of H_2O concentration observed in the literature data. An empirical calibration curve produced during each analytical session can correct for this problem as described in Chapter 2.

Correct use of the VBD technique requires knowledge of the Fe oxidation state because oxygen is not typically measured during EPMA and is instead calculated using stoichiometry (e.g., Devine et al., 1995; Nash, 1992; King et al., 2002). Hence, an unknown Fe oxidation in the glass leads to large errors on VBD estimates. Fe oxidation state is also a proxy for fO_2 , which is an important parameter to constrain in magmatic systems as it controls volatile element speciation, phase relations, and the physical properties of magma (e.g., Hamilton et al., 1964; Dingwell and Virgo, 1987; Kress and Carmichael, 1991; Vicenzi et al., 1994; Bouhifd et al., 2004; Wilke et al., 2005). Currently, the preferred technique for measuring the Fe oxidation state in melt inclusions is micro X-ray absorption near-edge structure (μXANES) spectroscopy (e.g., Cottrell et al., 2009), but this requires access to a synchrotron and cannot be used reliably on hydrous glass as it causes oxidation of the Fe during analysis (Cottrell et al., 2018). Chapter 3 develops a new technique for measuring Fe oxidation state using EPMA, which can be used on hydrous glass. The technique

is calibrated on a wide range of glass compositions and is applicable to both basaltic and peralkaline glasses. The discussion extends to considering the causes and mechanisms of electron beam damage during EPMA.

Stable isotope fractionation during degassing was investigated as a tool to estimate the initial carbon (and hydrogen) composition (concentration and isotope ratio) of magmas, and the style (equilibrium or disequilibrium, closed- or open-system) of magmatic degassing (e.g., Taylor, 1986; Pineau and Javoy, 1994, 1983; Macpherson and Matthey, 1994; Newman et al., 1988). Secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) was chosen as the analytical technique because it can measure the concentration and isotope ratio of trace elements with high spatial resolution ($\sim 20\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ region in diameter) (e.g., Hauri et al., 2002; Hinton, 1995). Additionally, as SIMS sputters material from the surface during analysis, it can analyse elements such as carbon and hydrogen, which commonly suffer from surface contamination (e.g., Blundy and Cashman, 2008). A protocol for analysing carbon stable isotopes in basaltic glass using SIMS was developed, including producing $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ standards, and is discussed in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 presents attempts to determine, for the first time, the fractionation factor of carbon and hydrogen between exsolved fluid and melt in the system basalt- H_2O - CO_2 , which is a fundamental parameter in stable isotope fractionation. Glasses were experimentally synthesised to simulate equilibrium, closed-system degassing and characterised for their carbon and hydrogen concentration and isotope ratios. The bulk volatile composition was modified by contamination (carbon) and infiltration during synthesis (hydrogen), hence the bulk volatile composition was calculated, rather than assumed using initial values. This chapter explores many of the technical issues involved in determining isotopic fractionation factors experimentally.

Etna is a well-studied volcano which provides a wealth of literature data for comparison, and crystals from Etna contain many, large melt inclusion. This makes it an ideal case study to apply the techniques developed during this thesis, which is discussed in Chapter 6. The 23 November 2013 eruption was one of the most explosive events of the 2011–2013 eruptive sequence and is thought to have been triggered by an injection of more primitive, volatile-rich magma (Bonaccorso et al., 2014). Magma mixing prior to eruption likely triggered the eruption, and the volatile concentration of the magma was intermediate between the highly explosive flank eruptions of 2001 and 2002–2003 (Métrich et al., 2004; Spilliaert et al., 2006) and the effusive eruptions in 2004–2006 (Collins et al., 2009).

To conclude, Chapter 7 discusses future avenues to improve the techniques developed in this thesis for melt inclusion analysis. The remainder of this introductory chapter is devoted to background information on magmatic systems and how melt inclusions can be used to unravel their histories. The importance of $f\text{O}_2$ and volatile composition as key parameters to the understanding of magmatic systems is covered. Additionally, the theory of stable isotope fractionation is discussed in relation to the magmatic degassing of volatiles. Specific details pertaining to individual chapters are covered in their respective introductions.

1.2. Magmatic systems

Magma is a multiphase material, which can contain melt, crystals and bubbles. The number of individual components, and their proportions and compositions, depends upon the intensive thermodynamic parameters imposed on the system, such as bulk composition, pressure, temperature, and $f\text{O}_2$. Understanding the history of the magma prior to eruption involves constraining these parameters, and how they change with time. This thesis looks in detail at constraining the $f\text{O}_2$ and volatile content of magmas.

1.2.1. Oxygen fugacity

Oxygen fugacity (fO_2) is equivalent to the equilibrium partial pressure that oxygen gas would have in the system. fO_2 varies by orders of magnitude within the Earth, from the core where metallic Fe is stable, to the surface where Fe_2O_3 is stable (e.g., Frost and McCammon, 2008). fO_2 is therefore a key variable in magmatic systems. It controls the valence state of multi-valent elements in silicate melts, the most important being Fe, which is present as both Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} , although many trace elements (e.g., Mn, Cr, V, Ce, and Eu) are also multi-valent (e.g., Kennedy, 1948; Kress and Carmichael, 1991; Wilke et al., 2005; Vicenzi et al., 1994). Additionally, volatiles can have many valence states and as a result their speciation is controlled by fO_2 (e.g., Holloway and Blank, 1994). For instance, sulphur can be present as H_2S to SO_2 , carbon as CH_4 to CO_2 , and hydrogen as H_2 to H_2O in melts and the solubility of volatiles is a strong function of fO_2 , hence fO_2 influences the degassing process (e.g., Sato, 1978; Mathez, 1984; Wallace and Carmichael, 1992; Moussallam et al., 2014).

fO_2 also impacts the chemical and physical properties of the magma. For instance, as fO_2 changes the Fe oxidation state of silicate melts, it changes the melt viscosity (e.g., Cukierman and Uhlmann, 1974; Dingwell and Virgo, 1987). This is because Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} occupy different structural roles in the melt as network modifier and former, respectively (e.g., Virgo and Mysen, 1985; Wilke et al., 2005), therefore changes in their relative proportions affects the viscosity. As minerals have charge-balanced compositions, the amount of Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} they can accommodate is dictated by their chemical formula. Therefore, fO_2 changes the mineral assemblage stable at specific pressures and temperatures (e.g., Hamilton et al., 1964; Carmichael and Ghiorso, 1990). This will additionally affect the magma rheology because crystallisation (timing and phase sequence) has a large impact on magma viscosity (e.g., Bouhifd et al., 2004).

fO_2 is thought to be inhomogeneous within the mantle, hence different magmatic systems may have different initial fO_2 . For instance, arc magmas are more oxidised than MORB magmas due to the influence of the subducting plate (e.g., Osborn, 1959; Wood et al., 1990; Cottrell and Kelley, 2011; Grocke et al., 2016; Kelley and Cottrell, 2009). Inhomogeneity can also be inherited from previous subduction, and can therefore be present within MORB (e.g., Arculus, 1985; Cottrell and Kelley, 2013; Shorttle et al., 2015). The fO_2 of magma can also be changed by magmatic processes. For instance, degassing changes the oxidation state of magmas in the shallow crust (e.g., Mathez, 1984; Moussallam et al., 2016, 2014).

As fO_2 is such an important parameter in magmatic systems, it is important to quantify its variation and there are many proxies for fO_2 based on measuring the effect fO_2 has on the system. These include, but are not limited to: the oxidation state of multivalent elements in minerals (e.g., Fe^{2+}/Fe_T in spinel, Wood, 1990) or silicate glass (e.g., Fe^{2+}/Fe_T , Kress and Carmichael, 1991); changes in trace element partitioning resulting in changes in trace element ratios (e.g., V/Sc in basalts, Li and Lee, 2004) or partition coefficients (e.g., Ti between ilmenite-magnetite, Buddington and Lindsley 1964; and V between olivine-liquid, Canil 1997); changes in oxidation state cause stable isotope fractionation, hence stable isotope ratios of multi-valent elements can also be used (e.g., $\delta^{57/54}Fe$, Williams et al., 2004).

1.2.2. Volatiles

Magmatic systems are an integral part of the global volatile cycle (e.g., C, H, S, Cl, and F), transferring volatiles from the mantle to the atmosphere (e.g., Jambon, 1994; Fischer, 2008; Burton et al., 2013, for

reviews). Volatiles are incompatible in most minerals and thus partition strongly into the melt during mantle melting. These melts are buoyant, and therefore migrate through the crust, sometimes erupting at the surface. The solubility of volatiles varies strongly as a function of pressure, therefore during ascent through the crust, volatiles exsolve from the melt to form an additional fluid phase (e.g., Burnham, 1979; Holloway, 1981). Carbon has the lowest solubility of the major volatile species and so exsolves first, which provides bubbles into which other volatiles may partition (e.g., Mysen et al., 1975; Blank and Brooker, 1994; Ni and Keppler, 2013). Volatiles reach the surface through cracks in the crust resulting in wide areas of diffusive degassing, often surrounding volcanoes (e.g., Allard et al., 1991; Baubron et al., 1990). Alternatively, volatiles can reach the surface through the volcanic conduit, either coupled to the melt during eruptions or decoupled from the melt during passive degassing (e.g., Burton et al., 2013, for a review). These volatiles can have significant impacts once in the atmosphere. For instance, carbon degassed from volcanoes is an important component of the global carbon cycle, which regulates the Earth's temperature (e.g., Walker et al., 1981). Magmatic degassing of carbon also influences the carbon redox balance in the Earth and the amount of organic carbon buried (e.g., Mason et al., 2017). Additionally, the sulphur output during volcanic eruptions can cause global temperature to decrease due to the properties of sulphur aerosols in the atmosphere (e.g., Pyle et al., 1996).

Volatiles also play a critical role in the eruption dynamics of volcanoes (e.g., Wilson et al., 1980; Huppert and Woods, 2002; Papale et al., 1998; Papale, 1999). During ascent to the surface, volatiles saturate and nucleate as bubbles which expand and grow as the pressure decreases, driving eruptions (e.g., Sparks, 1978). These volatiles then escape from the magma, either explosively during fragmentation or as they decouple from the magma. High concentrations of volatiles, such as H_2O and CO_2 , are associated with explosive eruptions. For instance, at Axial seamount on the Juan de Fuca Ridge, high CO_2 concentrations in the magma have been measured in explosive submarine eruptions (Helo et al., 2011). At Cerro Negro, magma that stalled at higher pressures pre-eruption, (and therefore retained higher volatile contents of both H_2O and CO_2 pre-eruption), erupted more explosively than magma that reached shallower depths pre-eruption and lost these volatiles (Roggensack, 1997). Externally added volatiles can also enhance explosivity. For instance, H_2O added to the system from surface water, the sea, and glaciers, can produce highly explosive phreatomagmatic eruptions, whilst external CO_2 from decarbonation of country rocks can add volatiles prior to magma reaching the surface (e.g., Lorenz, 1987; Freda et al., 2011). High volatile concentrations do not necessarily dictate the eruption style, as style of degassing (closed- vs open-system) is also important (see Cassidy et al., 2018, for a review).

Additionally, volatiles have a profound effect on the viscosity of magmas. Viscosity is a key parameter controlling the explosivity of eruption as it affects the degassing style, ascent rate and fragmentation mechanism (e.g., Wilson et al., 1980; Dingwell, 1996; Zhang, 1999; Namiki and Manga, 2008). Dissolved volatiles have a major impact on the viscosity of melts, for instance H_2O which changes melt viscosity by orders of magnitude as it depolymerises the melt structure (e.g., Shaw, 1963; Friedman et al., 1963; Di Genova et al., 2013). Degassing produces bubbles, which either decrease or increase the magma viscosity with increasing bubble proportion, depending on the flow regime; and induces crystallisation, which generates crystals that increase the viscosity of the magma (see Mader et al., 2013, for a review).

As volatiles can decouple from the melt, they can reach the surface without magma erupting. This can be used to probe the magma prior to eruption and gas emissions are often used to monitor volcanoes (e.g.,

Galle et al., 2010). For instance, changes in the absolute concentration, isotope ratio, redox state, and relative proportion of volatile species has been used to infer changes in the magmatic system (e.g., Martini, 1996). Increases in CO₂, or CO₂/S ratios, are linked to deep injections of new, primitive, volatile-rich magma in the system because carbon exsolves at high pressures (e.g., Roberge et al., 2009). This loss of volatiles to the atmosphere precludes the use of bulk rock samples in studies of the volatile history of magmas. While gas emissions can be analysed from currently active volcanoes, understanding past eruptions requires melt inclusion analysis.

1.3. Mineral-hosted melt inclusions

Melt inclusions are small pockets of melt (1–100 µm in diameter), trapped inside crystals as they grow from the magma (e.g., Sorby, 1858; Roedder, 1979) (Figure 1.1). They provide a unique opportunity to sample the magma from various depths throughout the magmatic plumbing system, prior to eruption. Melt inclusions form in a variety of ways (Figure 1.1, after Roedder, 1979) and can be primary or secondary in origin, depending on whether the crystal surrounding the melt inclusion grew from the same melt or not. Primary processes include trapping melt during rapid growth of the crystal caused by supersaturation. Supersaturation can cause a rim of skeletal growth, (e.g., due to volatile loss, Figure 1.1a), or a skeletal/dendritic crystal to grow, (e.g., inhibited nucleation followed by rapid growth due to cooling, Figures 1.1b and c), which can trap melt inclusions when the crystal continues to grow subsequently (Roedder, 1979). Dissolution of the crystal, followed by overgrowth of the crystal, can trap melt inclusions as well (Figure 1.1d) (Roedder, 1979). Melt inclusions can be trapped where a different crystal is attached to the host-crystal surface, which disrupts subsequent crystal growth (Figure 1.1e) (Roedder, 1979). A crack in the crystal, which subsequently heals, is a secondary process that can trap melt inclusions (Figure 1.1f) (Roedder, 1979). If a melt inclusion does not completely isolate itself from the surrounding magma, it forms an embayment. As melt inclusions form at the host-mineral surface, they may not represent the bulk magma and instead represent a boundary layer composition. Fortunately, boundary layer diffusion is typically fast enough to prevent this (e.g., Lu et al., 1995).

1.3.1. Post-entrapment modification processes

At the time of melt inclusion entrapment, the composition and structure of the melt inclusion records the melt at that instance in time. However, there are a variety of processes that can modify the composition and structure of this melt post-entrapment (e.g., Roedder, 1979; Sorby, 1858; Danyushevsky et al., 2002, 2000; Di Genova et al., 2018; Gaetani et al., 2012; Nielsen et al., 1998; Steele-Macinnis et al., 2011). Post-entrapment modification can occur prior to, or after, eruption, when the melt inclusion is still liquid. This occurs as a consequence of changes in the composition of the surrounding magma; such as slow cooling at depth and in lava flows, or in response to degassing and crystallisation during ascent (e.g., Gaetani and Watson, 2000; Hartley et al., 2017, 2015; Moussallam et al., 2016, 2014). Modification post-entrapment can also occur on the quench as the melt inclusion passes through the glass transition (e.g., Di Genova et al., 2018).

There are different types of post-entrapment processes, which effect different aspects of the melt inclusion composition and structure (Figure 1.2). Continued crystallisation of the host mineral on the walls of the melt inclusion post-entrapment can change the melt composition, whereby compatible elements are depleted and

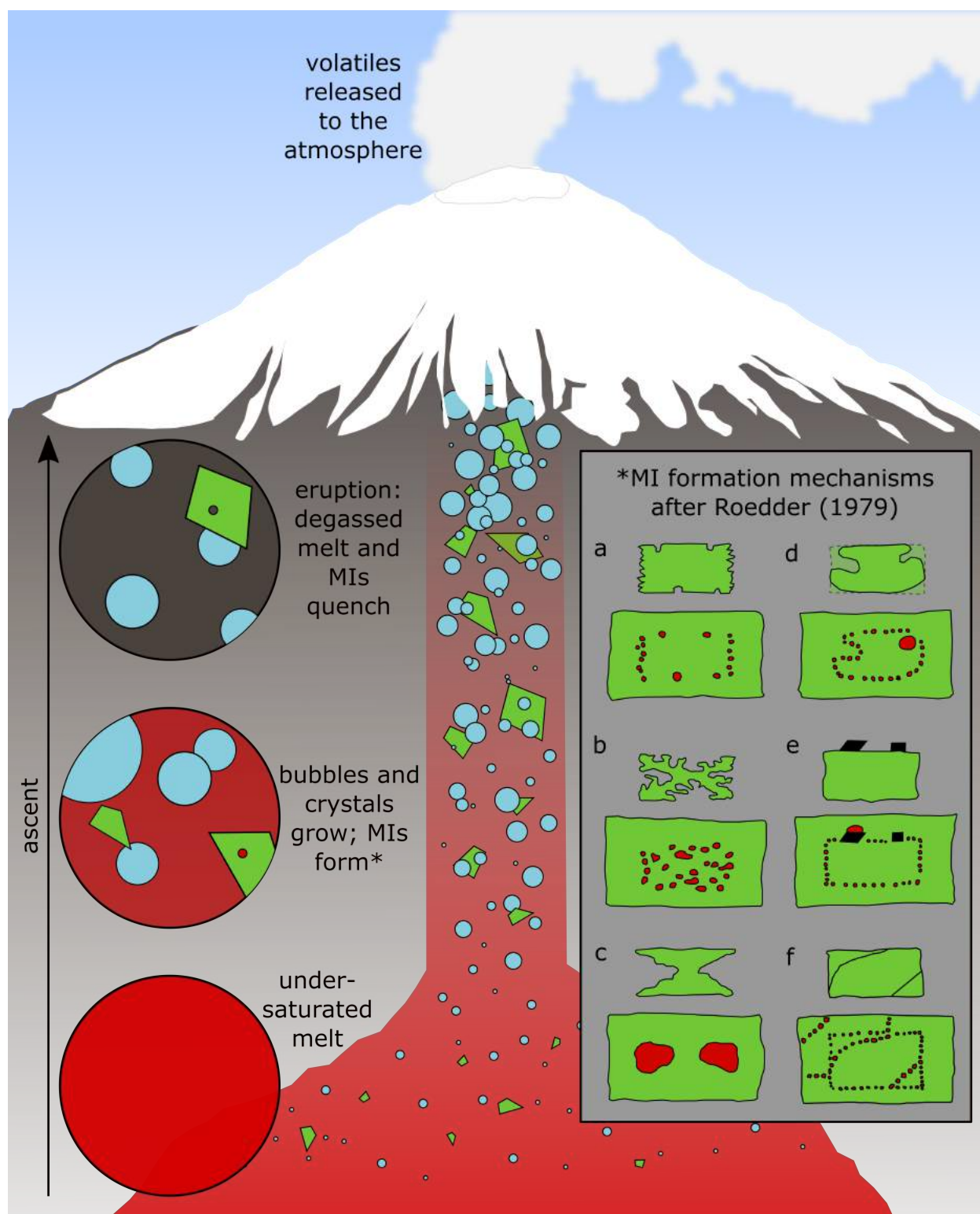


Figure 1.1: Schematic illustration of melt inclusion formation, and quenching, as the magma ascends and erupts. Trapping mechanisms included are after Roedder (1979): primary melt inclusions form due to crystal overgrowth of (a) a skeletal rim, (b) a dendritic crystal, (c) a hollow crystal, (d) previous dissolution of the crystal, (e) crystals attached to the host-crystal surface; and secondary melt inclusions form by (f) infilling of cracks that subsequently heal.

incompatible elements are enriched (e.g., Danyushevsky et al., 1988; Dungan and Rhodes, 1978; Gaetani and Watson, 2002; Nielsen et al., 1998; Sobolev and Shimizu, 1993; Witham et al., 2012). The melt inclusion can

diffusively re-equilibrate with its host-mineral, and even the surrounding magma through the host-mineral, which also changes the melt composition (e.g., Danyushevsky et al., 2000; Gaetani et al., 2012; Gaetani and Watson, 2002, 2000; Hartley et al., 2017, 2015). Pressure changes during ascent and cooling can cause the melt in the melt inclusion to shrink more than the host-crystal, which can lead to the formation of a bubble (e.g., Bucholz et al., 2013; Lowenstern, 2003, 1995; MacLennan, 2017; Métrich et al., 2009; Roedder, 1979; Sorby, 1858; Schiano, 2003). This bubble can sequester volatiles, resulting in the bubble becoming enriched, and the melt depleted, in those volatiles; this is especially important for volatiles with low solubility such as CO_2 . Therefore, the glass volatile content of a melt inclusion may not represent the total volatile content of the melt at the time of entrapment. Furthermore, if the melt inclusion cools slowly, the melt inclusion can begin to, or even completely, crystallise (e.g., Tuttle, 1952; Hartley et al., 2017; Nielsen et al., 1998) and nanolites can precipitate during the quench (e.g., Di Genova et al., 2018, 2017a; Mujin et al., 2017; Mujin and Nakamura, 2014).

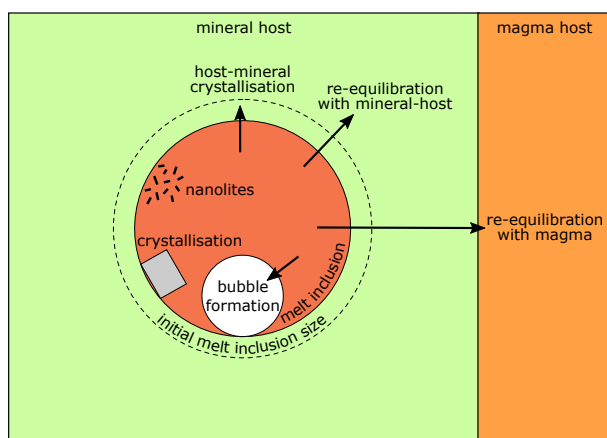


Figure 1.2: Schematic illustration of post-entrapment processes that can modify melt inclusion composition. The melt inclusion is shown in red, the host-mineral in green, and the host magma in orange. The initial size of the melt inclusion is shown by the black, dashed line, which becomes the size of the red melt inclusion due to continued crystallisation of the host-mineral on the inclusion walls. The composition of the melt inclusion can re-equilibrate with the host-mineral and the host-magma. Bubbles (white circle), crystals (grey rectangle), and nanolites (black lines) can exsolve from the melt within the melt inclusion as well. Black arrows show where species in the melt inclusion diffuse to during these processes.

1.3.2. Unravelling magmatic histories

Notwithstanding post-entrapment modification processes, melt inclusion chemistry can be used to unravel the history of the magma prior to eruption (see Blundy and Cashman, 2008; Métrich et al., 2009, for reviews). Major, minor and trace element concentrations are used to estimate the initial composition of the magma, fingerprint its source and identify the chronology and conditions (such as pressure and temperature) of mineral crystallisation (e.g., Watson, 1976; Kent, 2008; Michael and Cornell, 1998; Blundy and Cashman, 2008; Roedder, 1979). As the relationship between Fe oxidation state and $f\text{O}_2$ has been parameterised for temperature, pressure and melt composition, the Fe oxidation state of the melt can be used to calculate $f\text{O}_2$ (Kress and Carmichael, 1991). At constant $f\text{O}_2$, melt composition and pressure have a minor effect on the Fe oxidation state, but temperature has a dramatic effect (Figure 1.3).

The volatile (H, C, S, Cl, and F) concentrations of melt inclusions are used to estimate pressures of entrapment, volatile budgets of eruptions and degassing styles (e.g., Blundy and Cashman, 2008; Métrich et al., 2009; Sommer, 1977; Métrich and Clocchiatti, 1989; Clocchiatti, 1971). If the melt is fluid-saturated, the entrapment pressure can be calculated using melt H_2O and CO_2 concentrations and a solubility model (e.g., Figure 1.4; VolatileCalc, Newman and Lowenstern 2002; SolEx, Witham et al. 2012; or MagmaSat, Ghiorso and Gualda 2015).

If melt inclusions trap undersaturated melt, the concentration of volatiles can be used to estimate the bulk

Figure 1.3: Effect of melt composition, temperature and pressure on Fe oxidation state ($\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$) at different $f\text{O}_2$. Fe oxidation state calculated using Kress and Carmichael (1991). The basaltic composition (blue) is Etina from Shishkina et al. (2014) and the rhyolitic composition (red) is Mount St Helens (DS-63) from Riker et al. (2015).

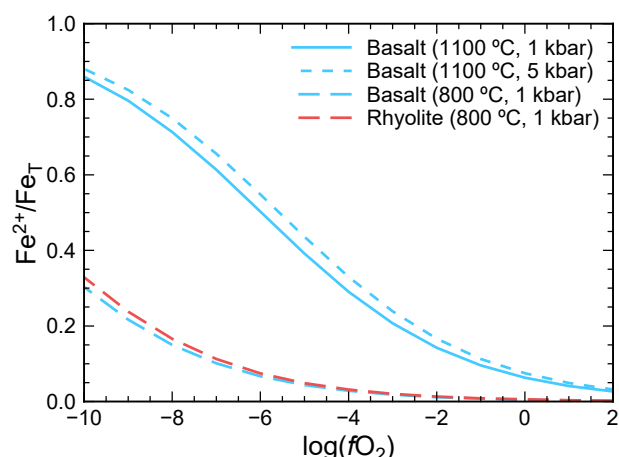
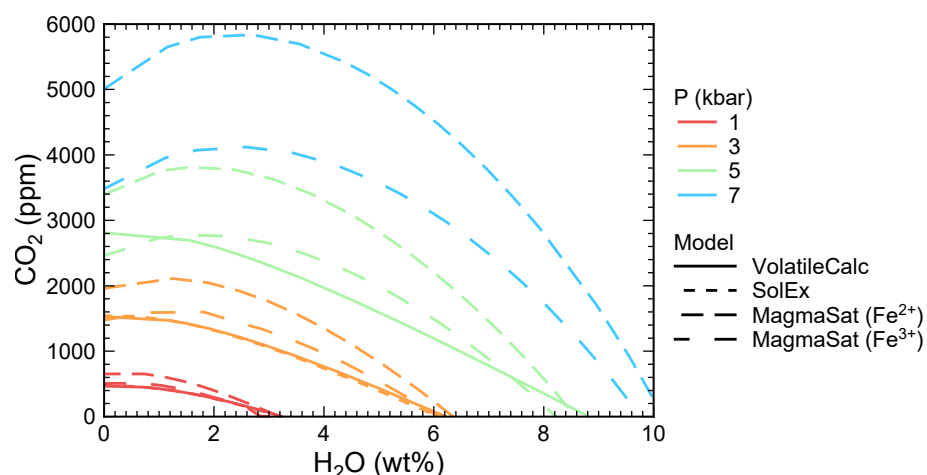


Figure 1.4: Isobars of CO_2 and H_2O at 1250°C using VolatileCalc, SolEx and MagmaSat for a basaltic melt. VolatileCalc is calculated using 49 wt% SiO_2 , whilst SolEx and MagmaSat are calculated using the ETNA-A composition in Table 3.1. MagmaSat is calculated at the extremes of $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ (i.e., all Fe^{2+} or all Fe^{3+}).



volatile content of the magma (e.g., Blundy and Cashman, 2008; Métrich et al., 2009). Often the highest measured concentration of the volatile in a suite of melt inclusions is used to represent the bulk concentration prior to degassing. This assumes that degassing, and the subsequent volatile loss, is the only process controlling the volatile concentration in the melt. However, if the melt was significantly undersaturated in volatiles before it began to crystallise, the concentration of volatiles would increase until volatile saturation was reached. This would lead to an overestimate of the bulk volatile concentration. Assuming the maximum measured concentration is equal to the bulk magma concentration is only appropriate for volatiles that have naturally low concentrations compared to their solubilities (e.g., S, Cl, F, and sometimes H_2O ; Figure 1.5). Conversely, CO_2 has low solubility and potentially high concentrations in magmas, therefore it begins to exsolve at higher pressures than the onset of crystallisation (Figure 1.5). As a result, crystals are unlikely to trap melt inclusions with CO_2 concentrations representative of the original magma (e.g., Blundy et al., 2010; Wallace, 2005; Anderson and Brown, 1993). Additionally, large melt inclusions trapped at high pressures (which are easier to analyse and more likely to record high CO_2 concentrations) are most prone to decrepitation, which biases our sampling of CO_2 concentrations (MacLennan, 2017). This explains why the highest CO_2 concentrations measured in melt inclusions are insufficient to explain the CO_2 emissions from arc volcanoes (Wallace, 2005). Additionally, volatile concentration data alone makes it difficult to fingerprint the volatile source. For instance, carbon may come from the mantle or be added to the magma during interaction with basement limestone (e.g., Mason et al., 2017; Freda et al., 2011), which cannot be discriminated based on only CO_2 concentration.

The relationship between H_2O and CO_2 concentrations in the melt depends upon the degassing style (Figure

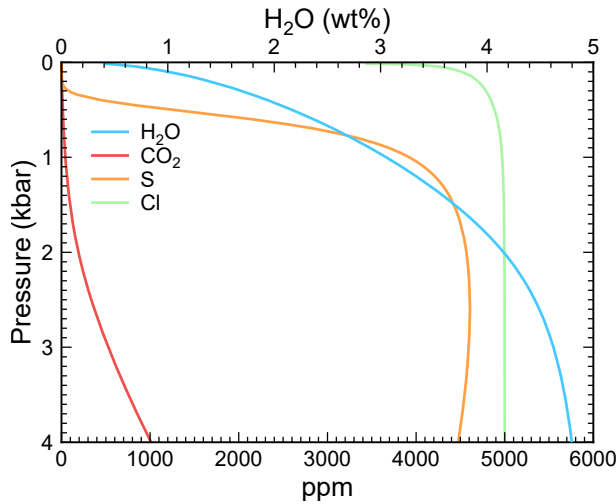


Figure 1.5: Changes to melt volatile concentrations (H_2O , CO_2 , S, and Cl) with pressure using SolEx for a basaltic melt (composition of ETNA in Table 3.1) decompressing under closed-system conditions with initial volatile concentrations of 5 wt% H_2O , 5000 ppm CO_2 , 5000 ppm S, and 5000 ppm Cl at 1250 °C and NNO+1.8. H_2O concentration uses the top axis, whilst CO_2 , S, and Cl concentrations used the bottom axis.

1.6). Equilibrium degassing requires the exsolved fluid and coexisting melt to maintain chemical equilibrium during changes to the intensive conditions of the system (e.g., pressure and temperature). Disequilibrium degassing occurs when chemical equilibrium is not maintained, likely due to slow diffusivities of the volatile species through the melt into the bubble (e.g., Javoy and Pineau, 1991; Aubaud et al., 2004; Pichavant et al., 2018). Even during disequilibrium degassing, local equilibrium may be achieved between the bubble and the directly surrounding melt. Even so, the bulk melt volatile concentration may not equal the equilibrium values (i.e., they will not lie on an isobar) and will be spatially heterogeneous (e.g., Pichavant et al., 2018).

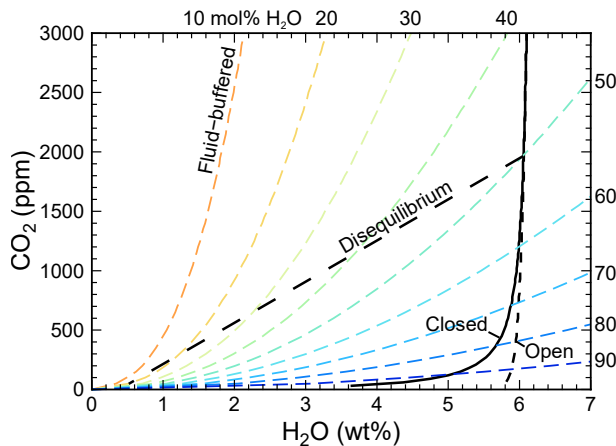


Figure 1.6: Equilibrium closed- (solid, black line) and open- (small-dashed, black line) system degassing trends, and isopleths (small-dashed, coloured lines) calculated using VolatileCalc (49 wt% SiO_2 and 1250 °C). The numbers on the isopleths (e.g., 20) refer to the composition of the coexisting fluid (i.e., 20 mol% H_2O and 80 mol% CO_2). Disequilibrium closed-system degassing path (long-dashed, black line) shown schematically from Pichavant et al. (2018).

During closed-system degassing, the exsolved fluid and coexisting melt maintain equilibrium throughout the degassing process. During open-system degassing, the melt and fluid are physically separated during degassing, but exsolution can occur under equilibrium or disequilibrium conditions. Alternatively, the melt composition can be buffered by a fluid (e.g., Métrich et al., 2004; Barsanti et al., 2009; Caricchi et al., 2018). These different processes have profound implications for eruption styles and using volcanic gas emissions to infer changes in the magmatic system. The difference between the path of an equilibrium degassing magma and a fluid-buffered magma are sufficiently different in H_2O - CO_2 space to be discriminated (Figure 1.6). On the other hand, closed- and open-system equilibrium degassing are very similar until shallow pressures, and are therefore difficult to distinguish (Figure 1.6). Little data is available on disequilibrium degassing, however, Pichavant et al. (2018) suggest that at natural decompression rates, H_2O maintains an equilibrium composition whilst CO_2 is retained in the melt. Therefore, disequilibrium degassing paths have elevated CO_2 concentrations for the same H_2O concentration, and hence are difficult to distinguish from

fluid-buffered systems (Figure 1.6).

1.3.3. Analytical techniques

As melt inclusions are small (1–100 μm in diameter), microanalytical techniques are required for their analysis (Table 1.1) (e.g., Ihinger et al., 1994; Blundy and Cashman, 2008, for reviews). The major and minor element chemistry of melt inclusions is typically analysed using EPMA. Trace element chemistry can be measured using laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) (e.g., Halter et al., 2002) or SIMS (e.g., Hinton, 1995). LA-ICP-MS is a more destructive technique than SIMS, but both can also give isotopic information. Alternatively, if the element of interest is not present in the host-mineral, the crystal containing the melt inclusion can be dissolved, and the concentration and isotope ratio of the trace element in solution analysed (Koornneef et al., 2015).

Table 1.1: Techniques for analysing melt inclusions.

Technique	Description	Accessibility	Spatial resolution	Variable
Raman	Section 6.3.2	High	$\sim 1\ \mu\text{m}$	H concentration, Fe oxidation state, bubble composition, nanolites
FTIR	Section 4.2.2	High	$\sim 100\ \mu\text{m}$	H and C concentration and speciation
μXANES		Low	$\sim 2\ \mu\text{m}$	Fe oxidation state
SIMS	Section 4.1	Low	$\sim 20\ \mu\text{m}$	Trace, H, and C concentration and isotope ratio
EPMA	Section 2.2	High	$\sim 1\ \mu\text{m}$	Major, minor, and volatile element concentration
LA-ICP-MS		High	$\sim 25\ \mu\text{m}$	Trace element concentration and isotope ratio

Volatiles are commonly analysed in melt inclusions. The hydrogen concentration can be measured using Fourier transform infra-red (FTIR) spectroscopy (e.g., Stolper, 1982), Raman spectroscopy (e.g., Thomas, 2000), and SIMS (e.g., Hauri et al., 2002). FTIR can identify volatile speciation but requires large melt inclusions ($>100\ \mu\text{m}$ in diameter) and exposure of the melt inclusion on both sides (i.e., double-polished sections). Raman has high spatial resolution, but spectra can be compromised by the glass structure and composition (Di Genova et al., 2018). Carbon concentration can be measured using FTIR (e.g., Fine and Stolper, 1986) and SIMS (e.g., Hauri et al., 2002) with similar advantages and drawbacks. Other volatiles (e.g., S, Cl, and F) can be measured using EPMA and SIMS.

The Fe oxidation state can be measured using μXANES (e.g., Cottrell et al., 2009) and Raman (e.g., Di Genova et al., 2016). μXANES requires access to a synchrotron and can cause beam damage in hydrous samples (Cottrell et al., 2018). Additionally, Raman can be used to detect nanolites in the glass (e.g., Di Genova et al., 2018). The composition of minerals and bubbles hosted in the melt inclusion can be measured using EPMA and Raman, respectively, (e.g., Moore et al., 2015).

1.4. Stable isotope fractionation

Stable isotope fractionation of volatiles during degassing has been used to infer the bulk volatile composition (concentration and isotope ratio) of magmas, and the style of degassing, prior to eruption (e.g., Taylor, 1986). The use of stable isotope fractionation requires measurement of both the concentration and isotope ratio of volatiles in variably degassed volcanic products, such as groundmass glass (e.g., Barry et al., 2014; Macpherson and Matthey, 1994; Newman et al., 1988), melt inclusions (e.g., Hauri et al., 2002), vesicles (e.g., Aubaud et al., 2004), fluid inclusions (Gennaro et al., 2017) and volcanic gases (e.g., Gerlach and

Taylor, 1990). Crucially, it does not require finding a melt inclusion that has trapped undegassed melt to estimate the bulk volatile composition. This makes it particularly useful for carbon as some degassing is likely to precede crystallisation and melt inclusion formation.

Stable isotope fractionation causes the relative abundances of isotopes to change during physio-chemical processes due to chemical fractionation, as opposed to nuclear processes such as radioactive decay (Urey, 1947). The chemical behaviour of atoms and molecules depends primarily on their electronic configuration, which is not affected by their isotopic composition. However, rotational, translational, and vibrational energies have a secondary effect on chemical behaviour. These are affected by the nuclear mass of the atoms and hence the isotopic composition. The vibrational energy depends on temperature, hence isotopic fractionation is temperature-dependent. The vibrational energy in a molecule is quantised and, for a specific vibrational energy level, the bond energy will be lower in a bond containing the heavier isotope. During equilibrium processes, where the energy of the system is at a minimum, the heavier isotope will be enriched in phases with the stronger, lower energy bond. In kinetic processes, the products of the reaction will be enriched in the lighter isotope because the lighter isotope diffuses more quickly and forms weaker bonds, which will be more easily broken. These equilibrium and kinetic fractionation effects are largest at low temperatures and when there is a large relative mass difference between isotopes.

Degassing is the exsolution of a fluid phase from a melt. This involves a phase change and, if the speciation of the volatile is different in the exsolved fluid and melt, a chemical change: hence, degassing isotopically fractionates volatiles (e.g., Taylor, 1986). Volatiles commonly consist of light elements (e.g., hydrogen and carbon) where the relative change in mass between isotopes is large, therefore the effects of stable isotope fractionation are often measurable. The isotope ratio of the melt and exsolved fluid depend on the extent of degassing; whether degassing occurs under closed- or open-system conditions; and the fractionation factor, which describes the magnitude and direction of isotopic enrichment.

Closed- and open-system degassing give different graphical relationships between the volatile concentration and isotope ratio in variably degassed samples (Section A.3). During closed-system degassing, the melt and fluid maintain equilibrium throughout, hence by mass balance:

$$\delta_m = \left(\frac{\Delta_{f-m}}{C_b} \right) \cdot C_m + (\delta_b - \Delta_{f-m}) \quad (1.1)$$

where δ_m and δ_b are the volatile isotope ratios of the melt and bulk system, respectively; C_m and C_b are the volatile concentrations of the melt and bulk system, respectively; and Δ_{f-m} is the volatile isotopic fractionation factor between the melt and exsolved fluid (Section A.3.1). Therefore, in δ_m - C_m space, closed-system degassing is a straight line where the slope (m) is inversely proportional to the bulk concentration:

$$m = \frac{\Delta_{f-m}}{C_b} \quad (1.2)$$

and the intercept (c) is related to the bulk isotope ratio:

$$c = \delta_b - \Delta_{f-m} \quad (1.3)$$

If Δ_{f-m} is known, both the bulk concentration and isotope ratio can be calculated independently from a graph of $\delta_m = f(C_m)$. Therefore, the bulk (initial) composition of the melt prior to volatile saturation and degassing can be calculated.

For open-system degassing, the exsolved fluid is separated from the melt instantaneously when it is formed, which can be calculated by integrating the closed-system degassing equation (Section A.3.2):

$$\delta_m = \Delta_{f-m} \cdot \ln C_m + (\delta_b - \Delta_{f-m} \cdot \ln C_b) \quad (1.4)$$

In δ_m - $\ln C_m$ space, open-system degassing is a straight line where the slope (m) equals Δ_{f-m} and the intercept (c) is a function of the bulk concentration and isotope ratio:

$$c = \delta_b - \Delta_{f-m} \cdot \ln C_b \quad (1.5)$$

In this case, although no knowledge of Δ_{f-m} is needed *a priori*, knowledge of either the bulk concentration or isotope ratio is required to calculate the other.

Figure 1.7 shows a schematic illustration of the changes in the carbon isotope ratio of the melt during closed- followed by open-system equilibrium degassing, for two different initial CO_2 concentrations (2000 ppm and 1 wt%). Disequilibrium degassing would result in the melt become isotopically heavier (i.e., more positive $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ with decreasing CO_2 concentration). The grey boxes show the CO_2 concentrations of submarine groundmass glass and melt inclusions (darker and lighter grey, respectively), and hence the range of isotope ratios each sample type would capture. In all cases, accurate knowledge of Δ_{f-m} is critical, and currently there are no data available for mixed (H_2O - CO_2) volatile systems. Additionally, there has been little work on analysing melt inclusions for their carbon isotope ratios. These two factors need to be addressed to use this tool effectively on melt inclusions to reconstruct initial carbon compositions.

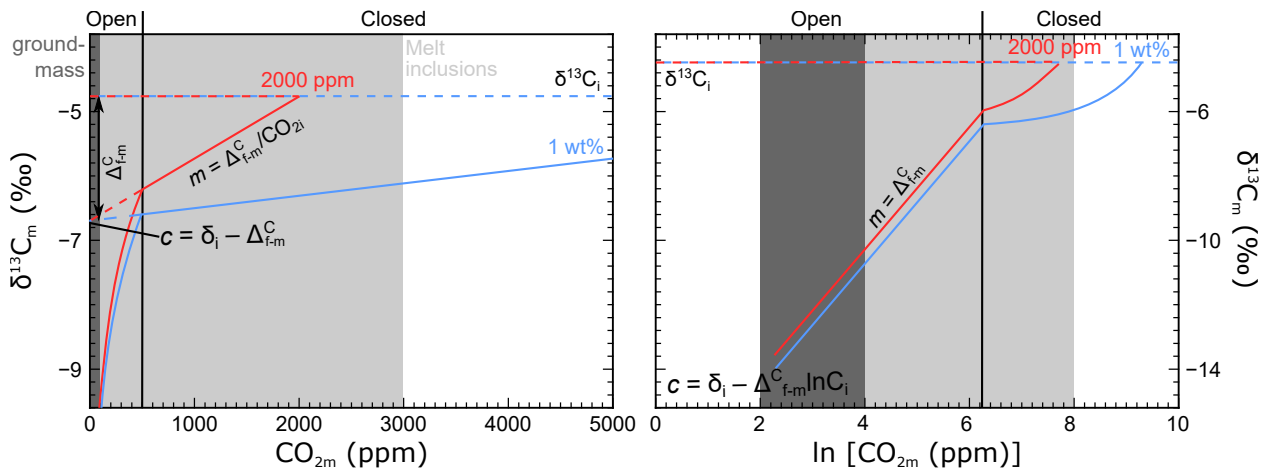


Figure 1.7: Closed- followed by open-system (change in degassing style occurs at 500 ppm CO_2) equilibrium degassing for CO_2 using $\Delta_{f-m}^C = +2$ ‰ (Mattey, 1991; Mattey et al., 1990). The red curve has 2000 ppm initial CO_2 and the blue curve has 1 wt% initial CO_2 . The light grey box shows CO_2 concentrations trapped by melt inclusions, and the dark grey box CO_2 in submarine groundmass glass.

Chapter 2

Low analytical totals in EPMA of hydrous silicate glass due to sub-surface charging: Obtaining accurate volatiles by difference

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Author contributions and declaration: E.C. Hughes collected, processed, and interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscript with the help of B. Buse, S.L. Kearns, J.D. Blundy, G. Kilgour, and H.M. Mader. The manuscript was improved from helpful comments from M. Stock, an anonymous reviewer, and the editor B. Kamber. The R code to calculate glass density was provided by D. Neave. All content is included as displayed in the submitted paper, except Section 2.5.3 has been added to explain the protocol used throughout the thesis for EPMA of silicate glass for major and minor element chemistry.

ABSTRACT

The major and minor element chemistry of silicate glass is commonly measured using electron probe micro-analysis (EPMA). The volatile content ($\text{H}_2\text{O} \pm \text{CO}_2$) can, additionally, be quantified using volatiles by difference (VBD), but a review of literature data shows that this method consistently overestimates the volatile content. We propose that sub-surface charging during EPMA reduces analytical totals, consequently elevating VBD. Sub-surface charging produces an internal electric field due to trapped implanted electrons, resulting in fewer X-rays being generated and their depth of generation being shallower. The maximum electric field strength required to produce the observed overestimation of VBD is calculated to be $\sim 10^{-1} \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$. Crystals are often used as standards for glass analysis but, as amorphous materials have more defects in the band gap, glasses can trap more electrons resulting in greater amounts of sub-surface charging. As this is not included in matrix corrections, it causes errors for glass analyses, but not for crystal analyses. By calibrating VBD using hydrous glass standards, the effect of charging can be incorporated, and volatile contents can be determined to an accuracy of $\pm 0.1 \text{ wt}\%$, compared to an overestimation of $\sim 1 \text{ wt}\%$ using conventional VBD methods.

2.1. Introduction

Electron probe micro-analysis (EPMA) is a critical technique for analysing the composition of silicate glass in volcanology and petrology, such as in melt inclusions and interstitial glass (e.g., Faure and Schiano, 2005). Major and minor element concentration changes, which can be quantified directly using EPMA, provide information on the diversity of magmas (e.g., primary magma compositions and mixing events prior to eruption) and their pre-eruptive crystallisation history (e.g., Kent, 2008; Michael and Cornell, 1998). Glass composition can be used in combination with mineral chemistry to test for equilibrium conditions (e.g., Fe-Mg exchange between melt and olivine, Roeder and Emslie, 1970) and estimate magma pressures and temperatures (e.g., olivine- feldspar-, and pyroxene-melt thermobarometry, see Putirka, 2008, for a review). However, the concentration of the key volatile components (H_2O and CO_2) that have a profound effect on the physical properties of melts (density and viscosity, e.g., Giordano and Dingwell, 2003; Ochs and Lange, 1999), phase relations (e.g. Feig et al., 2006), degassing and eruptive style (e.g., Métrich et al., 2009), cannot be easily and directly determined by EPMA. This shortcoming limits significantly the utility of EPMA in understanding volcanic processes.

One approach to this issue is to estimate the $\text{H}_2\text{O}+\text{CO}_2$ content of silicate glass by EPMA using the indirect ‘volatiles by difference’ (VBD) method, whereby the discrepancy between the analytical total for measurable (major and minor) elements and 100 wt% provides an estimate for the total volatile content (Blundy and Cashman, 2008; Devine et al., 1995; Humphreys et al., 2006; King et al., 2002; Nash, 1992). Many trace elements are not analysed by EPMA and if they occur in high abundances this will lead to an underestimation of the total. Typically, individual major elements are measured to $\sim 1\%$ relative error, which results in a $\pm 0.5\text{--}0.7\%$ error on VBD, corresponding to a combination of the errors on the individual elements (Devine et al., 1995; Humphreys et al., 2006). The volatile component by VBD cannot be separated into H_2O and CO_2 but, as H_2O is an order of magnitude more soluble in silicate melts than CO_2 , most of the VBD is H_2O . The VBD method has been used widely to quantify the volatile content of experimental samples (e.g., Botcharnikov et al., 2008; Di Carlo et al., 2006; Erdmann and Koepke, 2016) and natural samples such as melt inclusions (e.g., Holtz et al., 2004; Métrich et al., 2004; Rutherford and Devine, 1996; Sommer, 1977).

There are a variety of techniques that can directly and precisely analyse H_2O and CO_2 in silicate glass, such as SIMS, FTIR, and Raman (e.g., Hauri et al., 2002; Newman et al., 1986; Thomas, 2000). For comparison, EPMA has higher spatial resolution than SIMS and FTIR ($\sim 5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ diameter using EPMA compared to $\sim 15\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ for SIMS and $\sim 100\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ for FTIR) and is more widely accessible (and less expensive) than SIMS. Also, EPMA does not suffer from problems due to fluorescence or the presence of nanolites, which can effect quantification using Raman (e.g., Di Genova et al., 2017b). Therefore, EPMA is often used to estimate H_2O when other techniques are unavailable and, uniquely, provides the complete major and minor element glass chemistry in a single analysis.

A review of literature data ($n = 524$, Table B.1) of VBD compared to measured volatile content (H_2O , and CO_2 where available) is summarised in Table 2.1 and Figure 2.1. In these studies, H_2O concentration is measured using FTIR, SIMS, Karl-Fischer titration, or assumed in accordance with experimental conditions (e.g., solubility), whilst CO_2 concentration is measured using SIMS or FTIR (Table 2.1). Errors are not shown but are typically $<10\%$ relative for measured volatile content and $<0.7\text{ wt}\%$ for VBD. Most (n

= 287) of the data is for measured volatile contents <2 wt%, with slightly fewer ($n = 226$) analyses for volatile-rich glasses with 2–6 wt% measured volatiles. There are few data ($n = 11$) for glasses with >7 wt% measured volatile content. If VBD and measured volatile content agreed, the data would be evenly distributed around the 1-to-1 trend (Figure 2.1a), with equal number of analyses under- and overestimating the measured volatile content (Figure 2.1c). Instead, most of the data lie above the 1-to-1 trend (Figure 2.1a), with more analyses (>50 %) overestimating the measured volatile content (Figure 2.1c). This indicates a systematic error, which is not necessarily obvious in small datasets. Including all data ($n = 524$), the volatile content is overestimated in 63.5 % of analyses (mean overestimation 0.41 wt% with one standard deviation, 1σ , 1.16 wt%). For data with measured volatile contents <2 wt% ($n = 287$), VBD overestimates the volatile content in 54.7 % of analyses (mean overestimation 0.08 wt%, 1σ 0.72 wt%) (Figure 2.1b). For measured volatiles >2 wt% ($n = 237$), overestimation occurs in 74.3 % of analyses (mean overestimation 0.81 wt%, 1σ 1.43 wt%). Either EPMA VBD overestimates the true volatile content, or techniques such as SIMS, FTIR, or Karl-Fischer titration underestimate the true volatile content. As a variety of different techniques are used to quantify the measured volatile content in these literature data, it seems unlikely that all these techniques would underestimate the true volatile content to the same degree. Hence, it is considered more likely that VBD consistently overestimates the true volatile content.

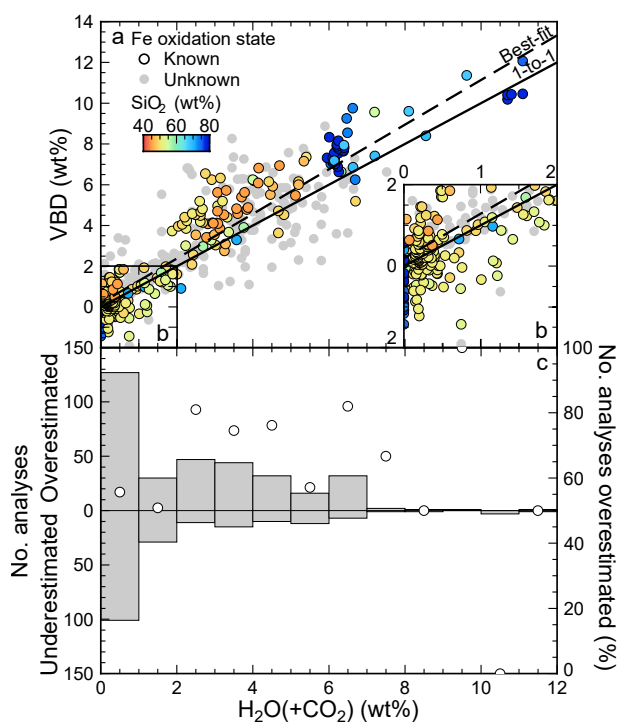


Figure 2.1: (a) Volatiles by difference (VBD) calculated using EPMA against measured volatile content (H₂O, and CO₂ where available). Analyses are coloured by SiO₂ concentration where Fe oxidation state is known. The solid line indicates the 1-to-1 trend and the dashed line the best-fit to all data. (b) An expansion of the data from (a) at low volatile contents. (c) Histogram, binned by measured volatile content, showing the number of VBD analyses that over- and under-estimate the measured volatile content on the left-hand axis, and the proportion of VBD analyses that overestimate the measured volatile content in white circles on the right-hand side axis. Dataset includes 524 analyses.

Evidently, VBD is accurate at low volatile contents (<2 wt%), but consistently overestimates the volatile content in volatile-rich glasses (>2 wt%) by nearly 1 wt%. Such large discrepancies would have significant impact on the calculated physical and chemical properties of the melt and, in turn, its behaviour before and during volcanic eruptions. For instance, a 1 wt% overestimation in H₂O concentration could change the calculated entrapment pressure of water-saturated melt inclusions by up to ~ 0.5 kbar, equivalent to ~ 2 km depth change (Newman and Lowenstern, 2002). Similarly, Di Genova et al. (2013) calculate that the viscosity difference between 2.5 and 4.0 wt% dissolved H₂O is approximately an order of magnitude ($10^{2.4}$ to $10^{3.3}$ Pa·s at 1023 K). Therefore, it is important to understand the cause of the overestimation of VBD and to develop a method to improve the accuracy of VBD measurements.

Table 2.1: Literature data to compare VBD and measured volatiles.

Study	Composition	<i>n</i>	H ₂ O	Method Fe ²⁺ /Fe ³	CO ₂	Measured volatiles (wt%)		Overestimation (wt%)		
						Range	Average	<i>s.d.</i>	Average	<i>s.d.</i>
<i>Natural</i>										
Cottrell and Kelley (2011)	Basalt	59	FTIR	μXANES	n.d.	0.02–0.76	0.28	0.15	-0.05	0.54
Nichols et al. (2002); Shorttle et al. (2015)	Basalt	62	FTIR	μXANES	n.d.	0.12–0.40	0.22	0.07	0.04	0.37
Kelley and Cottrell (2009)	Basalt ^a	37	FTIR, SIMS	μXANES	FTIR, SIMS	0.14–5.40	1.52	1.30	-0.03	1.05
Naumov et al. (2008)	Rhyodacite	16	SIMS	n.d.	n.d.	0.90–6.68	4.56	1.60	0.16	0.82
Blundy et al. (2010)	Dacite to rhyolite	38	SIMS	n.d.	SIMS	0.09–6.11	1.68	1.55	0.42	0.77
Chabiron et al. (2001)	Rhyolite	9	SIMS	n.d.	n.d.	0.57–3.73	1.92	0.90	0.05	0.32
Delaney and Karsten (1981)	Rhyolite	11	SIMS	n.d.	n.d.	0.20–3.70	1.92	1.75	0.17	0.91
Drew et al. (2016)	Rhyolite	11	FTIR	n.d.	FTIR	2.27–5.33	4.20	0.89	2.15	1.65
Gurenko et al. (2005)	Rhyolite	12	SIMS, Raman	n.d.	n.d.	1.70–6.50	4.78	1.29	-2.22	0.74
Naumov (2011)	Rhyolite	15	SIMS	n.d.	n.d.	0.07–6.40	1.86	2.16	1.31	1.47
Smith et al. (2010)	Rhyolite	25	SIMS	n.d.	SIMS	0.74–7.52	4.32	1.62	1.17	1.61
Webster and Duffield (1991)	Rhyolite	19	SIMS	n.d.	n.d.	0.40–2.70	1.07	0.63	-0.09	0.77
Webster et al. (1995)	Rhyolite	27	SIMS	n.d.	n.d.	1.60–6.50	3.77	1.16	0.99	1.69
Webster et al. (1996)	Rhyolite	24	SIMS	n.d.	n.d.	0.20–3.60	1.34	1.11	0.41	0.34
<i>Experimental</i>										
Botcharnikov et al. (2005)	Ferrobasalt	16	FTIR	μMössbauer	n.d.	0.72–4.82	2.23	1.42	-0.03	0.41
Lesne et al. (2011)	Basalt	20	SIMS, FTIR	Titration	SIMS, FTIR	1.88–3.32	2.59	0.40	2.14	0.65
Melekhova et al. (2015)	Basalt	11	SIMS	μXANES	n.d.	0.60–7.20	4.27	1.91	1.13	0.97
Stampfer et al. (2014)	Basalt	25	SIMS	μXANES	SIMS	0.03–5.20	2.98	1.53	1.24	1.53
Di Genova et al. (2014, 2013)	Various ^b	13	KFT	Titration	n.d.	0.02–6.32	1.99	1.81	-0.13	0.40
Riker et al. (2015)	Dacite	8	SIMS	μXANES	SIMS	6.14–9.63	7.42	1.22	0.71	0.85
Wilke et al. (2002)	Dacite	5	KFT	μMössbauer	n.d.	10.7–11.1	10.88	0.20	-0.17	0.65
Devine et al. (1995)	Rhyolite	10	SIMS, FTIR	n.d.	n.d.	0.16–6.38	3.11	2.31	0.14	0.36
Di Genova et al. (2017a)	Rhyolite	11	*	Titration	n.d.		0.00		-0.50	0.66
Zhang et al. (1997)	Rhyolite	8	FTIR	n.d.	n.d.	0.75–5.40	2.18	1.69	0.14	0.21
Gaillard et al. (2001)	Rhyolite ^c	23	FTIR	Titration	n.d.	5.95–6.63	6.23	0.16	1.47	0.64
Di Genova et al. (2016)	Pantellerite	9	*	Titration	n.d.		0.00		-0.55	0.45
<i>Notes:</i> <i>n</i> is the number of analyses in each study; n.d. means not determined; * assumed due to experimental conditions; for measured volatiles, the range of the study is given followed by the average; the overestimation is the average of (VBD – measured volatiles) for each study; ^a are basaltic to basaltic andesite; ^b are latite, basalt and pantellerite; and ^c are metaluminous to peralkaline rhyolites. Errors of one standard deviation (<i>s.d.</i>) are given in <i>italics</i> . The complete dataset is available in Table B.1.										

2.2. Volatiles by difference using electron probe micro-analysis

EPMA uses the intensity of characteristic X-rays, generated by bombarding a sample with an electron beam, to measure its composition. Typically, $K\alpha$ X-ray lines are used for quantification of elements with an atomic number <30 , as they have the highest intensity of X-rays emitted from a specific atom. $K\alpha$ X-rays are generated by an incident electron ejecting an electron from the innermost shell (K shell) of a target atom, which is replaced by an electron from the shell above (L shell), emitting the $K\alpha$ X-ray. Element concentrations are calculated by comparing the intensity of X-rays emitted by standards of known composition to those emitted by the unknown. Emitted X-ray intensity depends on the number of X-rays generated and how much absorption and fluorescence occurs as they travel through the sample, which in turn depends on the sample composition. Matrix corrections are used to correct for differences in composition between the standards and unknowns that would affect mean atomic number, absorption, and fluorescence. As oxygen, a very important component of silicate glass, is not typically measured during EPMA, element concentrations are treated as oxide components, with the amount of oxide calculated stoichiometrically from the element at the assumed valence state. Glass is an insulator and therefore builds-up sub-surface charging during analysis as electrons become trapped within the sample (Bastin and Heijligers, 1991). This causes element migration, as ions are displaced in response to the build-up of charge at depth, and changes the generation and emission of X-rays (Cazaux, 1996). These potential causes for discrepant VBD analyses are addressed individually below.

2.2.1. Converting to oxides: Oxidation state of multi-valent elements

The valence state of cation species in the glass must be known in order to calculate oxygen using stoichiometry. If oxygen itself is measured, the excess oxygen not required stoichiometrically by other elements can be used to calculate the unmeasured volatile component. For most elements in natural silicate glass there is a single valence state, but Fe and S can have multiple oxidation states, e.g., Fe can be present as FeO, Fe₂O₃, or a mixture of both. Per Fe atom, Fe₂O₃ is ~10 % heavier than FeO which results in a ± 5 % relative error in oxide concentration when converting from elemental Fe if the oxidation state is unknown. This is important for basalts which contain 5–14 wt% FeO_T (FeO_T = all Fe reported as FeO), as the uncertainty in the amount of oxygen assigned to Fe leads to a ± 0.3 – 0.7 wt.% error in VBD. Consequently, to obtain reliable VBD, an independent constraint on Fe oxidation state is required (Donovan and Vicenzi, 2008; Nash, 1992). Rhyolites typically contain only 1–4 wt.% FeO_T, therefore the uncertainty from the amount of stoichiometric oxygen assigned to Fe is small (± 0.1 – 0.2 wt.%), and has a correspondingly smaller effect on the VBD error. For rhyolites, therefore, an independent constraint on Fe oxidation state is less critical.

As the Fe oxidation state is important in estimating VBD for silicate glass containing significant Fe, only data with measured Fe oxidation state are included in our compilation of literature data for silicate glass with FeO_T > 2 wt% (e.g., basalts and pantellerites). In these cases, the measured Fe oxidation state is used to assign FeO_T into FeO and Fe₂O₃ to calculate VBD. Where FeO_T < 2 wt% (e.g., rhyolites) the data are included even when no independent measurements of Fe oxidation state are available. At high concentrations sulphur oxidation state will also impact the analytical total, and therefore VBD. At S < 2500 ppm, the error due to the uncertainty in sulphur speciation (S²⁻ to S⁶⁺) is $< \pm 0.2$ wt.%. If no Fe oxidation state is available and when S is reported, VBD is calculated assuming all Fe is Fe₂O₃ and all S is SO₃. Such

VBDs represent a minimum estimate.

2.2.2. Matrix corrections

The matrix correction accounts for the differences in mean atomic number, absorption, and fluorescence of X-rays for samples with different compositions. If the unmeasured volatile is not included in the matrix correction for analyses without measured oxygen, the mean atomic number used for the matrix correction is incorrect and absorption by oxygen underestimated. This can lead to analytical totals being underestimated by ~1 wt% (Devine et al., 1995; Donovan and Vicenzi, 2008; Roman et al., 2006). This is corrected for by calculating the unmeasured volatiles (typically specified as H₂O) by difference within the matrix correction routine (Donovan and Tingle, 1996).

2.2.3. Element migration

Silicate glass can become unstable during EPMA due to the diffusive migration of mobile elements (e.g., Na), sometimes referred to as ‘beam damage’. Glass composition controls the severity of beam damage and hydrous glass is more susceptible than anhydrous glass (e.g., Section 3.5; Humphreys et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2018). Element migration can also occur in hydrous minerals, such as amphibole and apatite, causing errors in VBD estimates of these minerals (e.g., Stock et al., 2015). Beam damage is accompanied by a corresponding increase in the concentration of immobile elements (e.g., Si and Al) referred to as ‘grow-in’ (e.g., Morgan and London, 2005; Nielsen and Sigurdsson, 1981). These problems can be corrected for by monitoring the X-ray intensity over time and extrapolating back to the initial value (Nielsen and Sigurdsson, 1981), often referred to as ‘time-dependent intensity’ (TDI) corrections. As the change in X-ray intensity with time is not necessarily linear, only elements measured at the onset of the analysis can be corrected for (one per spectrometer, or typically five out of the twelve commonly analysed elements). Therefore, it is important to measure those elements that are likely to diffuse away or grow-in first. Measuring mobile elements first and for short times, even where the TDI correction is not required, is now routinely employed to address this problem (e.g., Blundy and Cashman, 2008).

2.2.4. Sub-surface charging

Electrical insulators (e.g., silicate crystals and glass) have a large band gap, which is the energy difference between the valence and conduction bands where no electrons can reside. Hence, for insulators a large amount of energy is required to promote an electron from the valence band into the conduction band. For electron imaging and EPMA, insulating materials are routinely coated with a thin layer of conductive layer, typically carbon, to prevent surface charging. This conductive coat does not, however, prevent *sub-surface* charging, whereby incident electrons are trapped within the sample (Cazaux, 1996). Charge is trapped as electrons occupying energy levels in the band gap produced by defects, such as vacancies, interstitial atoms, or substitutions within the lattice structure.

Trapped electrons generate an electric field within the sample, which enhances the deceleration of electrons as they pass through the sample. Hence, X-ray ionisations are reduced, generated closer to the surface, and undergo less absorption. This is reflected in the change in calculated $\varphi(\rho Z)$ curves, which depict intensity variations in X-ray generation and emission with depth relative to a thin film (e.g., Figure 2.2), by an internal electric field (Cazaux, 1996). The resulting measured X-ray intensity is a trade-off between these two

effects. For low energy X-rays, e.g., $OK\alpha$, where X-ray absorption by the matrix is reduced, the intensity may increase; but for most higher energy X-rays, intensity will fall as a consequence of charge trapping.

Charge-trapping sites (i.e., defects in the band gap) are more common in amorphous materials than in single crystals (Bonnelle, 2004). Therefore, the magnitude of sub-surface charging effects is greater in glasses than in crystals, all else being equal. Furthermore, charge-trapping is dynamic and can increase as a result of electron beam irradiation (Bonnelle, 2004). Typically, crystalline materials that are stable under the electron beam are used as standards. When these crystalline standards are used for crystal analysis they should experience a similarly small magnitude of charging and no quantification error will be observed. Hence, the issue of sub-surface charging has little impact on the analysis of anhydrous minerals (individual crystals), which typically yield totals of 100 ± 0.5 wt% when oxygen is calculated by stoichiometry, notwithstanding Fe redox issues described above. Conversely, when crystals are used as standards for glass analysis, the magnitude of charging will likely be different, providing a potential explanation for the discrepancy in analytical totals. Sub-surface charging is not included in current matrix corrections, as the amount of charging is difficult to determine. If standards and unknowns experience different amounts of charging during analysis, errors in quantification may result.

Direct measurements of sub-surface charging are difficult, but are possible post-irradiation within ground-coated insulators using the pressure wave propagation method (Maeno et al., 1989), thermal pulse method (Cherifi et al., 1992), or electrical methods (Sessler and Yang, 1998). To measure the dynamic build-up of charge, the electrostatic influence method can be used on coated (Jbara et al., 2002) and uncoated (Fakhfakh et al., 2003) samples. Using this technique, maximum electric field strengths (F_{\max}) of $\sim 1 \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$ have been measured in silicate glass (Jbara et al., 2004, 2002), that would cause significant distortion to the $\varphi(\rho Z)$ curve (Cazaux, 1996; Jbara et al., 1997). Sub-surface charging has been observed indirectly by measuring the migration of alkali elements in silicate glass over time (e.g., Gedeon et al., 1999; Gedeon and Jurek, 2002; Jbara et al., 1995; Lineweaver, 1963), and by comparing the X-ray intensity of charged and uncharged polycrystalline Al_2O_3 (e.g., Benhayoune and Jbara, 1996; Ghorbel et al., 2005). Using the decay of $\text{NaK}\alpha$ X-ray intensities over time and measured diffusivities of Na through silicate glass, Jbara et al. (1995) calculated F_{\max} of 10^{-4} – $10^{-1} \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$. As these magnitudes of sub-surface charging may measurably impact quantitative EPMA, we investigate the effects of sub-surface charging on the analysis of hydrous glass to see whether this additional effect could cause an underestimation of analytical totals and concurrent elevation of VBD.

2.3. Methods

We modelled the effect of sub-surface charging on glass analysis using the Monte Carlo simulation program Win X-ray (Demers and Gauvin, 2004; Gauvin et al., 2006), which incorporates the charge density model proposed by Cazaux (1996). We then use the results from Win X-ray to calculate VBD.

2.3.1. Sub-surface charging model

Sub-surface charging can be modelled using the steady-state sub-surface charging model of Cazaux (1996). This uses a one-dimensional charge distribution, which is valid if the irradiated area is large compared to the maximum penetration depth of electrons and charge builds up instantaneously. The sample thickness must greatly exceed the maximum penetration depth of electrons, and the top and bottom surfaces of the

sample must be grounded (Cazaux, 1996; Demers and Gauvin, 2004). In this case, the electric field within the sample is described by:

$$F = \frac{\rho_t (z_{\max} - z)}{\epsilon} \quad (2.1)$$

Where F is the electric field strength ($\text{V}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$), ρ_t is the trapped charge density ($\text{C}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$), z_{\max} is the maximum penetration depth of electrons (m), z is the depth in the sample (m), and ϵ is the permittivity of the sample ($\text{F}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$) (Cazaux, 1996). The maximum electric field (F_{\max}) occurs at the interface between the sample and the conductive coat ($z = 0$). The magnitude of the electric field is thus dependent on both the material properties of the sample and the analytical conditions.

2.3.2. Win X-ray: Monte Carlo simulation program

The inputs for Win X-ray are the sample composition and density (ρ_m), analytical conditions (accelerating voltage, beam current, and beam diameter), and maximum electric field strength (F_{\max}). The maximum penetration depth of electrons within the sample (z_{\max}), $\varphi(\rho Z)$ curves (generated and emitted), and measured X-ray intensity (I) for the principal characteristic X-rays (e.g., $K\alpha$, $K\beta$, $L\alpha$) of each target element are calculated.

We choose glass St8.1.B from Lesne et al. (2011) as the sample composition as it is a typical basalt. To simplify the composition, all Fe is FeO and volatiles other than H_2O (S, Cl, and CO_2) are excluded. We modelled typical analytical conditions used to analyse silicate glass (15 kV accelerating voltage, 10 nA beam current, and 10 μm beam diameter), with dissolved H_2O concentrations of 0–10 wt%. ρ_m for each H_2O concentration was calculated using density models of melts at room temperature and pressure, which were 2.793, 2.652, and 2.524 $\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$ for 0, 5, and 10 wt% H_2O , respectively, (Bottinga and Weill, 1970; Lange, 1997; Lange and Carmichael, 1990; Ochs and Lange, 1999; Toplis et al., 1994). We varied F_{\max} between 0.00 and 0.20 $\text{V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$ for each H_2O concentration, and the maximum penetration depth (z_{\max}) was calculated using the Kanaya-Okayama Range (Kanaya et al., 1972). The large beam diameter satisfies the requirement of one-dimensional charge distribution (i.e., charge distribution only varies in z as the irradiated area is large compared to the electron penetration depth). Each simulation was run for one million electrons.

2.3.3. Calculating volatiles by difference from Win X-ray results

X-ray intensities without sub-surface charging (I) were used as standards to derive k-ratios (k) using:

$$k = \frac{I'}{I} \quad (2.2)$$

where I' is the X-ray intensity with sub-surface charging at each H_2O concentration. Concentrations when sub-surface charging was imposed (C') were calculated using:

$$C' = k \cdot C \quad (2.3)$$

where C is the specified concentration. The measured analytical total and VBD were calculated. An example

calculation is shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Example calculation of modelled oxide concentration (C') by comparing uncharged X-ray intensities (I) to charged X-ray intensities (I') for $F_{\max} = 0.20 \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$.

Oxide	I	I'	k	C (wt%)	C' (wt%)
SiO ₂	5.96×10^4	5.85×10^4	0.980	51.86	50.08
TiO ₂	7.97×10^2	7.65×10^2	0.960	0.84	0.81
Al ₂ O ₃	1.99×10^4	1.96×10^4	0.983	18.63	18.31
Fe ₂ O ₃	4.52×10^3	4.36×10^3	0.964	8.12	7.83
MgO	4.67×10^3	4.62×10^3	0.990	6.02	5.96
CaO	1.79×10^4	1.72×10^4	0.961	11.11	10.68
Na ₂ O	7.42×10^2	7.40×10^2	0.997	1.98	1.97
K ₂ O	2.86×10^3	2.76×10^3	0.963	1.44	1.39
H ₂ O				0.00	–
Total				100.00	97.78
VBD					2.22

2.4. Results

Figure 2.2 gives the $\varphi(\rho Z)$ curves of the $K\alpha$ lines of interest, in order of increasing X-ray energy from upper left to lower right. Values of the $\varphi(\rho Z)$ function of the emitted curve [$\varphi(\rho Z)_e$] are always less than the generated curve [$\varphi(\rho Z)_g$], as some X-rays are always absorbed. At shallow depths in the sample, $\varphi(\rho Z)_g$ for $F_{\max} = 0.00$ and $0.20 \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$ are comparable, but at greater depths, the intensity of generated X-rays falls off more quickly for $F_{\max} = 0.20 \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$. For Si, Al, Mg, and Na calculated values of $\varphi(\rho Z)_e$ for $F_{\max} = 0.00$ and $0.20 \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$ are similar, whereas for Ti, Fe, Ca, and K $\varphi(\rho Z)_e$ for $F_{\max} = 0.20 \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$ is noticeably less than for $F_{\max} = 0.00 \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$.

Figure 2.3 shows that for X-rays with energies $< 1 \text{ keV}$, $k > 1.00$, whereas for X-rays with energies $> 1 \text{ keV}$, $k < 1.00$. Measured X-ray intensities are reduced by the presence of an electric field for most elements routinely measured by EPMA (Figure 2.3). On the other hand, the intensity of heavily absorbed X-rays, such as $OK\alpha$, increases in the presence of an electric field. Broadly, k decreases with increasing X-ray energy, F_{\max} , and H₂O concentration of the glass but does not do so smoothly. The effect of F_{\max} and H₂O concentration increases with increasing X-ray energy. For H₂O concentrations of 0 and 5 wt%, k increases again for X-ray energies $> 5 \text{ keV}$, whereas for 10 wt% H₂O it does not change. The effect of H₂O concentration on k increases with increasing F_{\max} .

Reduction in X-ray intensities means the VBD, calculated using C' , is always greater than the specified H₂O (Figure 2.4). The value of VBD increases with increasing F_{\max} , and lines of equal F_{\max} appear parallel (Figure 2.4).

2.5. Discussion

2.5.1. Effect of F_{\max}

Modelling results confirm that more low energy X-rays ($< 1 \text{ keV}$) and fewer high energy X-rays ($> 1 \text{ keV}$) are emitted when an electric field is present. This is because, although fewer X-rays are generated overall, they are generated at shallower depths reducing X-ray absorption which most affects strongly absorbed,

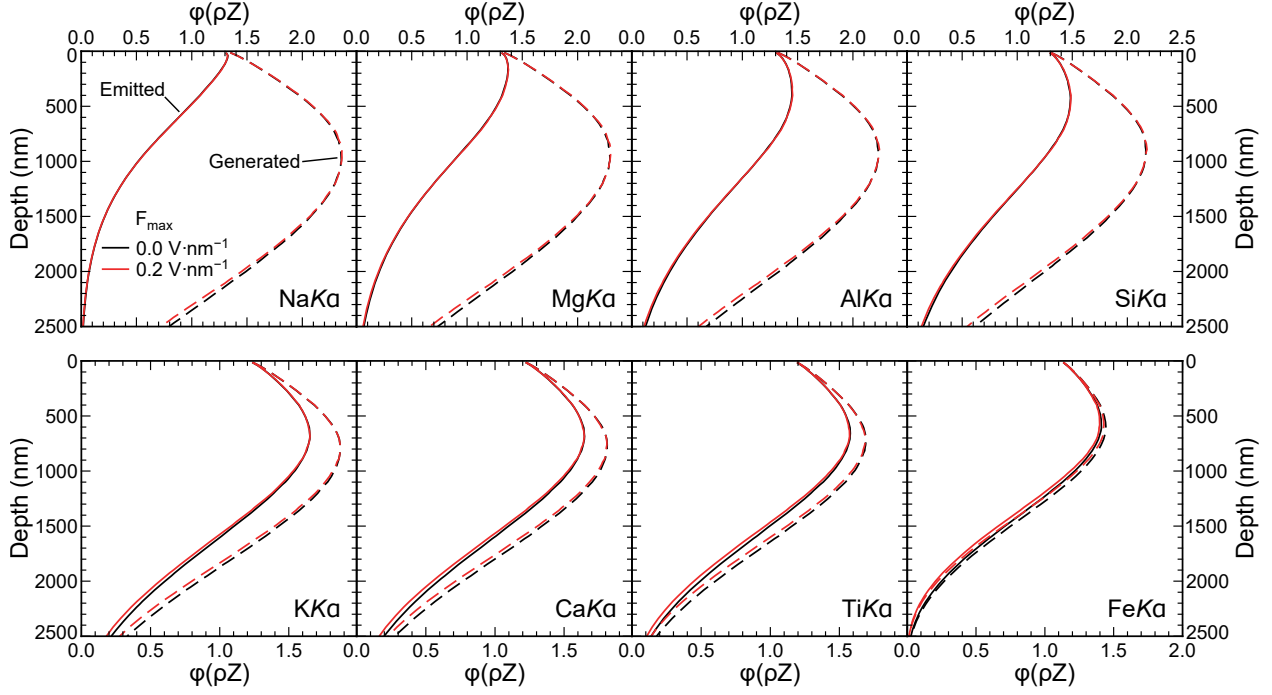
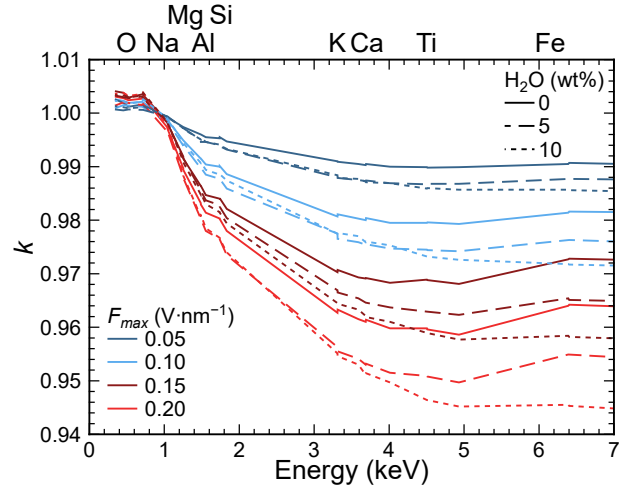


Figure 2.2: Generated and emitted $\phi(\rho Z)$ curves against depth for the $K\alpha$ lines of different elements (in ascending order of X-ray energy, indicated in the top right corner of each panel) for St8.1.B with 5 wt% H_2O , for $F_{max} = 0.00$ (black) and $0.20 \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$ (red).

Figure 2.3: k against X-ray energy with energy of $K\alpha$ X-rays indicated along the top. Different values of F_{max} are shown using different line colours, whilst different glass H_2O concentrations are shown by different line styles. For instance, results using an F_{max} of $0.10 \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$ for 5 wt% H_2O are shown in the long dashed, light blue line. Data are available in Table C.1.



rather than weakly absorbed, X-rays. Moreover, the deceleration of electrons will affect high energy X-rays more than the low energy X-rays as the overvoltage (ratio of the accelerating voltage to the critical excitation energy of the X-ray) is smaller; the magnitude of intensity reduction will therefore vary with primary accelerating voltage (Ghorbel et al., 2005). As the $K\alpha$ X-rays used for quantification are $>1 \text{ keV}$, the presence of an electric field in the glass reduces the emitted X-ray intensity (Figures 2.2 and 2.3), resulting in low analytical totals and overestimated VBD (Figure 2.4). Oxygen can be measured to calculate the volatile content, but this would also lead to an overestimation of volatiles because the intensity of $OK\alpha$ increases with an electric field present. At a constant F_{max} , k decreases with increasing H_2O concentration, which is likely due to the decrease in ρ_m that results from increasing amounts of dissolved H_2O in the glass. For most $K\alpha$ lines this effect is small, as reflected in almost parallel lines of modelled VBD at different values of F_{max} .

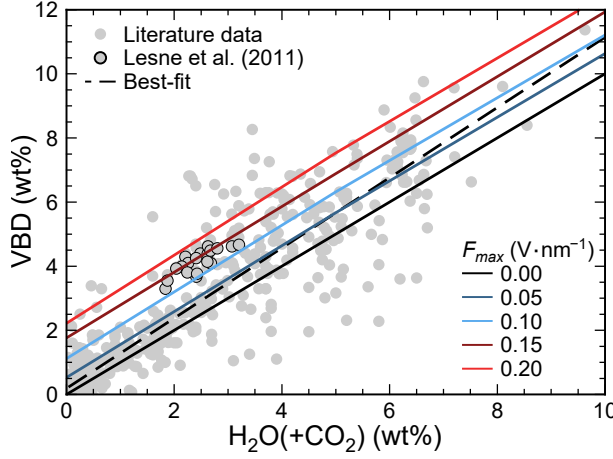


Figure 2.4: Volatiles by difference (VBD) calculated using Win X-ray against volatile content, for different F_{\max} (line colour). Literature data included for comparison in grey. Data for basaltic glasses of Lesne et al. (2011) are outlined in black.

We can compare our results to the studies of Jbara et al. (2004, 2002, 1995) that irradiated silicate glass at 13.0–18.5 kV accelerating voltage, 2–3 nA beam current, and 10^1 – 10^7 μm^2 irradiated area, giving doses of 10^{-4} – 10^2 $\text{C}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, similar to those modelled here ($\sim 10^1$ $\text{C}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). The F_{\max} we inferred using Win X-ray ($\sim 10^{-1}$ $\text{V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$) is in the range measured by Jbara et al. (10^{-4} – 10^0 $\text{V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$).

2.5.2. Controls on F_{\max}

Win X-ray adopts a user-selected F_{\max} during simulations, but it is important to understand what might control this value. F_{\max} is inversely proportional to ϵ , and glass has a value of ϵ_r (relative permittivity, or dielectric constant) of 3–10, which depends on composition, temperature, and frequency. For anhydrous basalt $\epsilon_r \approx 4.8$ (Carmisciano et al., 2011). Unfortunately, there are no data available for the effect of H_2O concentration on ϵ_r .

F_{\max} is proportional to z_{\max} , which increases with decreasing ρ_m and increasing accelerating voltage. ρ_m is a function of glass composition, including H_2O concentration, hence z_{\max} and F_{\max} will increase with increasing H_2O concentration. This is consistent with the increased discrepancy between measured volatile content and VBD at elevated H_2O concentration (Table 2.1 and Figure 2.1). For glasses with measured volatile content < 2 wt%, the mean overestimation is 0.08 wt% (with one standard deviation, 1σ , 0.72 wt%); whereas for glasses with measured volatile contents > 2 wt%, the mean overestimation is 0.81 (1.43 1σ) wt% (Figure 2.1).

F_{\max} is also proportional to ρ_t . Intrinsic charge trapping sites are a material property, caused by defects in the band gap (Bonnelle, 2004), which is partly a function of glass composition (Fakhfakh et al., 2010). Bombarding the sample with electrons will create additional charge trapping sites (Bonnelle, 2004), hence ρ_t is also dependent on analytical conditions. Jbara et al. (1995) found that a constant proportion of charge (relative to the number of incident electrons per unit area, dose) was trapped in the glass during analysis. This requires the number of charge-trapping sites to increase linearly with electron dose. Using results from Win X-ray gives a ρ_t of $\sim 10^2$ $\text{C}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ for our data. The dose rate is $\sim 10^1$ $\text{C}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ which means that $\sim 10^{-3}$ % of incident electrons are trapped, an order of magnitude larger than 2.6×10^{-4} % from Jbara et al. (1995) at similar analytical conditions. The main differences between our study and that of Jbara et al. (1995) are the concentrations of SiO_2 (73 wt% in Jbara et al. vs. 52 wt% in this study) and H_2O (0 wt% in Jbara et al. vs. 1–3 wt% in this study). In the literature data (Figure 2.1a), there is no significant difference in the magnitude of charging between glasses with different SiO_2 concentrations. Conversely, glasses with measured volatiles

< 2 wt% appear to suffer little charging whereas those with >2 wt% are more affected (Figure 2.1). We conclude that the order of magnitude difference in charge-trapping proportion between our study and Jbara et al. (1995) is most likely caused by H_2O concentration. Hydrous glass is more unstable during electron beam irradiation (Section 3.5; Humphreys et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2018), which could create more charge-trapping sites during analysis compared to anhydrous glass or crystals, and hence increase F_{\max} .

2.5.3. Analysing hydrous silicate glass

The analytical set-up for glass analysis was chosen considering the potential problems described in Section 2.2. An accelerating voltage of 15 kV was used, which gives an analytical volume 2–3 μm in depth, which is likely to be smaller than the depth of the melt inclusion. This avoids interactions with the host-mineral whilst allowing accurate quantification of Fe. A beam current of 10 nA was used which generates sufficient X-rays to get good counting statistics in a reasonable analysis time, whilst not causing significant beam damage. A defocused beam of 5–10 μm diameter was used to allow a range melt inclusions sizes to be analysed and ensure the spectrometers remained in focus.

All elements (majors, minors, and volatiles) were measured using their $K\alpha$ X-ray line. Oxygen was not measured and hence was calculated by stoichiometry. The Armstrong-Love Scott $\varphi(\rho Z)$ matrix correction was used, and hydrogen was included as an element by difference (Donovan and Vicenzi, 2008). Broadly two TAP-type crystals were used to measure Si, Al, Na, Mg, and F; two PET-type crystals were used for Ca, Ti, K, P, and S; and one LIF-type crystal was used to measure Fe and Mn. Mobile elements (e.g., Si, Na, and K) were measured first to allow TDI-corrections to be applied (Nielsen and Sigurdsson, 1981). Measuring the intensity over time lengthens the analysis time, hence a small number of bins was chosen (e.g., 6) to get sufficient data to fit a TDI correction but not result in too long an analysis time. To achieve a reasonable error on VBD, count times were chosen to achieve a ~ 1 % relative error (σ) on each element based on the typical number of counts (n) achieved in a basaltic glass using:

$$\sigma = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{n} \quad (2.4)$$

as a guide. If TDI corrections were not used, short count times and averaging many analyses were used instead, although this could only be done on experimental glasses where there was sufficient room for many analyses.

Typically, a background correction is made by measuring the X-ray intensity at wavelength positions either side of the peak of interest (high and low), avoiding any positions with known interferences from other elements. Count times for high and low background measurements are normally half those of measuring on peak, hence using off-peak background doubles the analysis time. This increases the likelihood of beam damage and hence the potential for errors in quantification. Another option is to use mean atomic number (MAN) backgrounds, which uses the measured relationship between background X-ray intensity and the MAN of the sample (Donovan and Tingle, 1996). This involves measuring the on-peak X-ray intensity on a variety of samples with different MAN *without* the element of interest to calculate the background intensity at the MAN of interest. Calculating the MAN backgrounds for each unknown is an iterative process, as the backgrounds inform the matrix correction which calculates the MAN of the sample. MAN curves were manually reviewed before being applied to check the quality of the fit.

Minerals were typically used for peaking and calibration standards, although anhydrous basaltic glass standards, such as Columbia River Basalt (BCR-2), were sometimes used for major element calibration (Tables 2.3 and 2.4). Six to ten 10 s analyses were collected for calibration, and a defocused beam was used on basaltic glass and albite as they can be unstable under electron beams. As the peak position of $SK\alpha$ depends on the oxidation state of S, barite was used to initially find the peak position and for calibration, but before analysis on glass $SK\alpha$ was repeated on the Juan de Fuca basaltic glass (VG-2, Table 2.4). Basaltic glasses not used as primary standards were used as secondary standards to check the quality of analysis during data collection (Table 2.4). A typical analytical routine is given in Table 2.5.

Table 2.3: Compositions of primary mineral standards for EPMA.

Oxide (wt%)	Albite	Wollastonite	SJIO	Sanidine	Fayalite Ward	Durango apatite	Andradite
SiO ₂	68.52	51.36	40.83	64.76	28.80		35.94
TiO ₂							0.08
Al ₂ O ₃	19.54	0.06		18.52			1.78
Fe ₂ O ₃		0.49	9.54		66.98		26.21
MnO		0.06	0.12		4.09		0.43
MgO		0.28	49.19		0.49		
CaO	0.11	48.01			0.10	54.02	31.50
Na ₂ O	11.61			2.12		0.23	
K ₂ O	0.24			14.21			
P ₂ O ₅						40.78	
NiO			0.36				

Notes: SJIO is St Johns Island Olivine and FeO_T is all Fe reported as FeO.

Table 2.4: Compositions of anhydrous basaltic glass primary and secondary standards.

Oxide	BCR-2	VG-2	VG-A99	3570
SiO ₂	54.1	50.81	51.06	50.64
TiO ₂	2.26	1.89	3.95	1.43
Al ₂ O ₃	13.5	14.00	12.44	15.87
FeO _T	12.42	11.84	13.15	10.52
MnO	0.20	0.21	0.19	0.21
MgO	3.59	6.66	5.04	6.39
CaO	7.12	11.06	9.04	9.33
Na ₂ O	3.16	2.62	2.72	3.82
K ₂ O	1.79	0.19	0.82	0.95
P ₂ O ₅	0.35	0.20	0.43	
H ₂ O		0.02		
S		1305	96	
Cl		300		
F	440	^a 225		
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T		0.83	0.87	

Notes: BCR-2 is the USGS basaltic glass standard Columbia River Basalt, VG-2 and VG-A99 are the Smithsonian microbeam Juan de Fuca and Kilauea basaltic glass standards, respectively, (Jarosewich et al., 1980), and 3570 is an internal secondary standard. Oxides are in wt% and elements are in ppm. ^a Value from Métrich et al. (2004).

Table 2.5: Example set-up for EPMA of hydrous basaltic glass: 15 kV accelerating voltage, 10 nA beam current, and 5–10 μm beam diameter.

Spectrometer – Crystal				
1 – PETJ	2 – TAP	3 – TAPH	4 – PETH	5 – LIFL
$\text{CaK}\alpha^{\text{a}}$ (30)	$\text{SiK}\alpha^{\text{a}}$ (30)	$\text{NaK}\alpha^{\text{a}}$ (30)	$\text{KK}\alpha^{\text{a}}$ (120)	$\text{FeK}\alpha^{\text{a}}$ (60)
<i>Wollastonite</i>	<i>Albite</i>	<i>Albite</i>	<i>Sanidine</i>	<i>Andradite</i>
$\text{TiK}\alpha$ (60)	$\text{AlK}\alpha$ (30)	$\text{MgK}\alpha$ (60)	$\text{PK}\alpha$ (60)	$\text{MnK}\alpha$ (180)
<i>TiO_2</i>	<i>Sanidine</i>	<i>SJIO</i>	<i>Durango apatite</i>	<i>Mn metal</i>
$\text{ClK}\alpha$ (150)		$\text{FK}\alpha$ (120)	$\text{SK}\alpha$ (60)	
<i>NaCl</i>		<i>MgF_2</i>	<i>VG-2</i>	
			Barite	
<i>Notes:</i> Elements listed in order of analysis from top to bottom; peak counting times (s) in brackets and background countings times are half these times unless MAN backgrounds were used; elements were peaked on the 1 st standard in italics and calibrated on the 2 nd standard if different; and VG-2 is the Smithsonian microbeam basaltic glass standard and SJIO is St Johns Island Olivine. ^a indicates TDI data collected to extrapolate to time 0 if element migration occurred. Compositions of standards are in Tables 2.3 and 2.4.				

2.5.4. Obtaining accurate volatiles by difference

There are a few options available for correcting for charging during EPMA. Firstly, matrix corrections could include the effects of sub-surface charging on X-ray generation, therefore allowing primary standards that are affected by different amounts of charging (e.g. crystals and anhydrous glass) to be used for calibration (Cazaux, 1996). Unfortunately, this requires accurate calculation of F_{max} in both primary standards and unknowns at the analytical conditions used. As ρ_t depends on the composition, structure, and analytical conditions, it must be measured rather than calculated on the primary standards and unknowns during analysis. Such measurements are not routine and there are few data for the effect of composition (especially H_2O concentration) on ϵ_r , a requisite for calculating F_{max} (Equation 2.1).

Alternatively, matrix-matched primary standards (i.e., hydrous glasses of appropriate composition) can be used for major element calibration, such that primary standards and unknowns would experience similar amounts of charging. This would require different major element primary standards for each glass H_2O concentration. Currently few, if any, hydrous glass primary standards with independent measurements of composition exist. However, the error on any single element is small and typically within analytical error. Hence in practice only VBD needs to be corrected for the effect of sub-surface charging and this can be done by internally calibrating VBD using a set of well characterised matrix-matched secondary standards with known volatile content (e.g., Botcharnikov et al., 2008; Holtz et al., 2004; Di Carlo et al., 2006) and Fe (\pm S) oxidation states. The VBD secondary standards should be analysed using the same analytical conditions and calibration as the unknowns to generate an empirical calibration curve for each session. This will result in similar amounts of charging in the secondary standards as in the unknowns. To produce a reliable calibration curve, a range of H_2O concentrations covering those expected in the unknowns should be used to avoid extrapolation. Additionally, there must also be an independent constraint on the Fe oxidation state (and S if the concentration is high) of the unknowns if they are Fe-rich basalts or pantellerites.

From Figure 2.4 it can be seen that the Lesne et al. (2011) data have measured VBD data comparable to modelled VBD for an $F_{\text{max}} \approx 0.15 \text{ V}\cdot\text{nm}^{-1}$. An example of the empirical correction using these data is

shown in Figure 2.5. Lesne et al. (2011) measured the glass composition and S oxidation state by EPMA, Fe oxidation state by wet chemistry, and H₂O and CO₂ by SIMS and/or FTIR. Samples from St8.1.B are used as VBD secondary standards as they cover the widest range in H₂O concentrations (1.87–3.11 wt%), and samples from MAS.1.A and MAS.1.B are treated as unknowns (Table 2.6 and Figure 2.5). The average accuracy improves from +1.69 (0.23 1 σ) to a slight underestimate of -0.06 (0.32 1 σ) wt%. This demonstrates the viability of using an empirical correction to achieve high accuracy VBD, accounting for both variations in sub-surface charging and calibration errors.

Table 2.6: Example VBD correction using data from Lesne et al. (2011).

Sample	Measured volatiles		VBD		VBD corrected	
	wt%	<i>s.d.</i>	wt%	<i>s.d.</i>	wt%	<i>s.d.</i>
MAS.1.B2 ^a	2.21	0.13	4.30	0.40	2.60	0.48
MAS.1.B3 ^{a,b}	2.49	0.13	4.39	0.84	2.72	1.01
MAS.1.B4 ^{a,b}	2.62	0.13	4.39	0.36	2.70	0.43
MAS.1.B5 ^{a,b}	2.26	0.13	4.10	0.52	2.36	0.63
MAS.1.B6	2.41	0.13	3.68	0.73	1.85	0.87
MAS.1.B7 ^b	1.84	0.12	3.30	0.75	1.41	0.90
MAS.1.A1 ^a	2.63	0.13	4.62	0.50	2.98	0.60
MAS.1.A2 ^a	2.14	0.13	3.99	0.44	2.24	0.53
MAS.1.A3 ^a	2.68	0.13	4.09	0.57	2.36	0.68
MAS.1.A4 ^a	2.62	0.13	4.15	0.48	2.42	0.57
MAS.1.A5 ^a	2.24	0.13	3.81	0.46	2.01	0.55
MAS.1.A6	2.42	0.13	3.77	0.88	1.97	1.05
MAS.1.A7 ^a	2.04	0.10	3.93	0.90	2.15	1.08
St8.1.B2 ^a	2.41	0.13	4.26	0.73	2.55	0.88
St8.1.B3 ^a	3.07	0.13	4.63	0.51	2.99	0.61
St8.1.B4 ^{a,b}	3.20	0.13	4.67	0.40	3.05	0.48
St8.1.B5 ^a	2.67	0.13	4.48	0.57	2.82	0.68
St8.1.B6	2.80	0.13	4.56	0.65	2.91	0.78
St8.1.B7 ^a	1.88	0.14	3.55	0.47	1.70	0.57

Notes: Measured volatiles is H₂O (+CO₂) using SIMS and/or FTIR, VBD includes ^aFe²⁺/Fe_T and ^bS⁶⁺/S^T, and VBD corrected uses an empirical correction based on St8.1.B data such that VBD corrected = (VBD – 2.13)/0.83. Errors of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) are in *italics*.

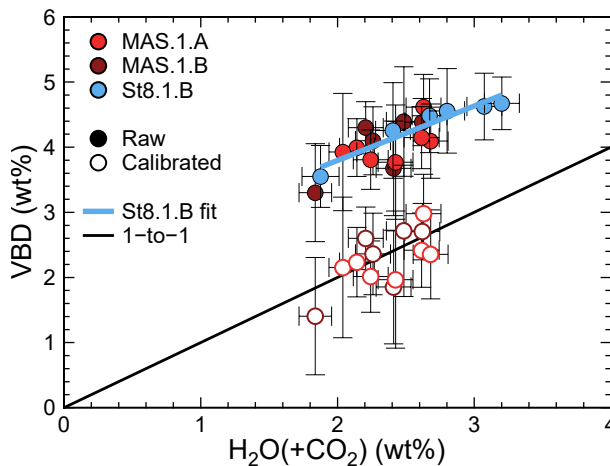


Figure 2.5: VBD against measured volatiles (H₂O+CO₂) from Lesne et al. (2011), where VBD includes Fe²⁺/Fe_T and S⁶⁺/S_T if measured. Closed symbols are the raw data and open symbols have been calibrated using a fit to the St8.1.B glasses (blue line). The VBD errors are calculated using the standard deviations on each measured oxide and the analytical error on Fe (0.03) and S (0.05) oxidation states, rather than the precision on VBD. If there was no measurement of Fe and/or S oxidation state, a value of 0.5 ± 0.5 (i.e., unknown) was used. The black line indicates the 1-to-1 trend.

2.6. Conclusions

Sub-surface charging is an important process to consider during EPMA of insulating materials, especially hydrous silicate glass, due to its effect on quantitative analysis (Cazaux, 1996). Sub-surface charging causes element migration and redox changes during analysis (e.g., Section 3.5; Humphreys et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2018). Our Win X-ray modelling shows that sub-surface charging can also have a measurable effect on X-ray generation and emission, resulting in low analytical totals and high VBD contents. The ~1 wt% overestimation of volatiles, predominantly H₂O, observed in the literature data when hydrous glass contains >2 wt% volatiles, could cause a ~0.5 kbar overestimation of the entrapment pressures of melt inclusions (Newman and Lowenstern, 2002), often used to decipher the architecture of volcano plumbing systems (e.g., Blundy and Cashman, 2008), resulting in ~2 km depth change which is on the order of the resolution of geophysical observations for shallow magma chambers (e.g., Field et al., 2012). The same issue would also cause an order of magnitude underestimation in the viscosity (e.g., Di Genova et al., 2013), which could change the inferred flow regime (e.g., Turner and Campbell, 1986), fragmentation mechanism (e.g., Namiki and Manga, 2008; Zhang, 1999), and whether the melt remained coupled to entrained bubbles and crystals (e.g., Jaupart and Vergnolle, 1988). Using an empirical correction to correct VBD removes the systematic overestimation of volatiles, and provides accurate volatile contents using EPMA. This makes EPMA a useful, low-cost alternative to other techniques such as FTIR, SIMS, and Raman, for analysis of volatiles at high spatial resolution, using a more readily available analytical instrument that does not suffer problems due to fluorescence and nanolites.

Chapter 3

High spatial resolution analysis of the iron oxidation state in silicate glass using the electron probe

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ABSTRACT

The iron oxidation state in silicate melts is important for understanding their physical properties, although it is most often used to estimate the oxygen fugacity of magmatic systems. Often high spatial resolution analyses are required, yet the available techniques, such as μXANES and $\mu\text{Mössbauer}$, require synchrotron access. The flank method is an electron probe technique with the potential to measure Fe oxidation state at high spatial resolution, but requires careful method development to reduce errors related to sample damage, especially for hydrous glass. The intensity ratios derived from measurements on the flanks of $\text{Fe}L\alpha$ and $\text{Fe}L\beta$ X-rays ($\text{Fe}L\beta_\text{f}/\text{Fe}L\alpha_\text{f}$) over a time interval (time-dependent ratio flank method) can be extrapolated to their initial values at the onset of analysis. We have developed and calibrated this new method using silicate glass with a wide range of compositions (43–78 wt% SiO_2 , 0–10 wt% H_2O , and 2–17 wt% FeO_T , which is all Fe reported as FeO_T), including 68 glasses with known Fe oxidation state. The Fe oxidation state ($\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$) of hydrous (0–4 wt% H_2O) basaltic (43–56 wt% SiO_2) and peralkaline (70–76 wt% SiO_2) glasses with $\text{FeO}_\text{T} > 5$ wt% can be quantified with a precision of ± 0.03 (10 wt% FeO_T and 0.5 $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$) and accuracy of ± 0.1 . We find basaltic and peralkaline glasses each require a different calibration curve, and analysis at different spatial resolutions (~ 20 and ~ 60 μm diameter regions, respectively). A further 49 synthetic glasses were used to investigate the compositional controls on redox changes during electron beam irradiation, where we found that the direction of redox change is sensitive to glass composition. Anhydrous alkali-poor glass becomes reduced during analysis, whilst hydrous and/or alkali-rich glass becomes oxidised by the formation of magnetite nanolites identified using Raman spectroscopy. The rate of reduction is controlled by the initial oxidation state, whereas the rate of oxidation is controlled by SiO_2 , Fe, and H_2O concentration.

3.1. Introduction

Oxygen fugacity is an important control on the chemical and physical properties of silicate melts, the stability of magmatic phases, and the multiphase rheology of magmas (Hamilton et al., 1964; Dingwell and Virgo, 1987; Kress and Carmichael, 1991; Vicenzi et al., 1994; Bouhifd et al., 2004; Wilke, 2005). It also determines the valence state of multivalent elements, such as Fe, Mn, Cr, V, Ce, Eu, and S, hence the ratio of oxidised to reduced species in the glasses quenched from melts provides a proxy for oxygen fugacity during natural processes and laboratory experiments (e.g., Carmichael, 1991; Kress and Carmichael, 1991; Herd, 2008). Many petrological and volcanological applications, such as analysis of glassy melt inclusions in minerals from volcanic rocks or interstitial glass in natural and experimental vesiculated and/or partially crystalline samples, require measurements at high spatial resolutions.

There are various techniques for quantifying the Fe oxidation state of silicate glass, with trade-offs between resolution, error, sample preparation requirements, necessity for standards, and instrument accessibility (see McCammon, 1999). Wet chemistry is a destructive bulk technique, requiring a minimum of 5 mg of material (e.g., Schuessler et al., 2008), which does not require standards but some expertise. Synchrotron-based absorption techniques, such as μXANES ($>2 \times 2 \mu\text{m}$, e.g., Cottrell et al., 2009) and $\mu\text{Mössbauer}$ ($>10 \times 5 \mu\text{m}$, e.g., Potapkin et al., 2012) allow high spatial resolution analysis, but the need for access to synchrotron facilities limits their utility. Also, μXANES can oxidise Fe in hydrous glass during analysis, producing erroneous Fe oxidation state values (Cottrell et al., 2018). Raman spectroscopy also has high spatial resolution (1 μm diameter), but has lower sensitivity for basaltic compositions and problems related to background fluorescence (e.g., Di Muro et al., 2009; Di Genova et al., 2016). Electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) would offer superior spatial resolution (nm) but standards are inhomogeneous at this scale and beam damage is significant (Burgess et al., 2016).

Conversely, the electron probe is widely available and has the potential for routine analysis of Fe oxidation state in geological materials (mainly garnet and amphibole) at high spatial resolution (Höfer et al., 1994; Enders et al., 2000; Höfer and Brey, 2007; Creighton et al., 2009, 2010; Malaspina et al., 2010; Lamb et al., 2012; Matjuschkin et al., 2014) but also silicate glass (Fialin et al., 2001, 2004, 2011). Typically, the electron probe uses the intensity of emitted characteristic X-rays to quantify chemical composition (e.g., Section 2.2), such as $\text{Fe}K\alpha$ to quantify Fe concentration (Figure 3.1a), however a variety of other factors can affect the intensity of characteristic X-rays. The $\text{Fe}L\alpha$ and $\text{Fe}L\beta$ lines are sensitive to the Fe oxidation state as their X-ray generation involves outer shell electrons (3d) affected by chemical bonding (Figure 3.1a) (Gopon et al., 2013). The energy of X-ray emission and absorption associated with the $\text{Fe}L$ lines are very similar, which leads to self-absorption. The $\text{Fe}L\alpha$ and $\text{Fe}L\beta$ peaks coincide with the L_3 and L_2 absorption edges, respectively, and hence are distorted by them, resulting in asymmetric peak shapes and peak shifts due to the differing amounts of absorption on each side of the absorption edges (Smith and O’Nions, 1971). The wavelength of the energy of the absorption edges shift due to changes in the coordination and oxidation state of Fe (De Groot, 2001; Höfer and Brey, 2007). The L_3 absorption edge shifts more than the L_2 absorption edge, resulting in greater changes to the $\text{Fe}L\alpha$ peak than the $\text{Fe}L\beta$ (Höfer and Brey, 2007). Thus, for a given chemical system (e.g., garnet, olivine, silicate glass), the $\text{Fe}L\alpha$ and $\text{Fe}L\beta$ peak positions and intensities vary depending on Fe concentration, oxidation state, and coordination (Figure 3.1b; Höfer and Brey, 2007).

There are two EPMA methods that exploit variations in $\text{Fe}L\alpha$ and $\text{Fe}L\beta$ to quantify Fe oxidation state (Figure

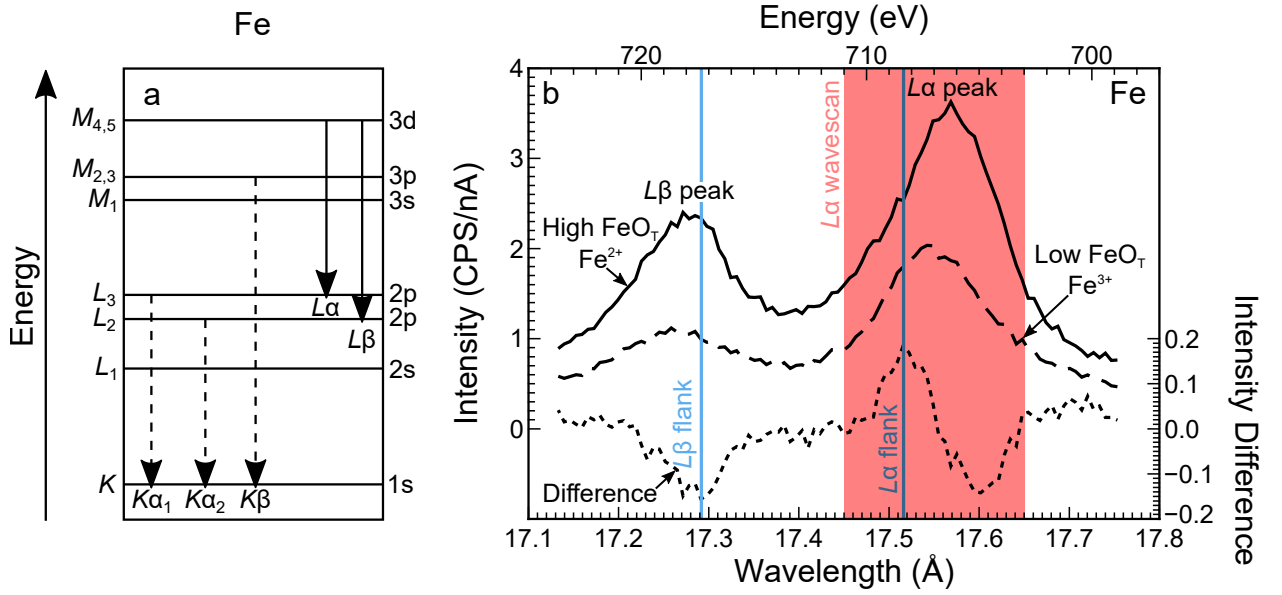


Figure 3.1: (a) Energy level diagram of the electron transitions that generate characteristic Fe X-rays, and (b) wavelength spectra of the $\text{FeL}\alpha$ and $\text{FeL}\beta$ peaks for a reduced, high FeO_T (solid, AR19) and oxidised, low FeO_T (dashed, AR14) silicate glass (Tables 3.1 and 3.2) plotted using the left-hand axes, and the difference spectrum (dotted, calculated once the wavescans are normalised to their maximum $\text{FeL}\alpha$ peak intensity) plotted using the right-hand axes. The red box indicates the wavelengths measured for the peak shift method ($\text{FeL}\alpha$ wavescan). The blue vertical lines indicate optimum wavelength positions measured for the flank method, which correspond to the maximum and minimum of the difference spectrum.

3.1b). The peak shift method uses the linear relationship between the wavelength of the $\text{FeL}\alpha$ peak with Fe oxidation state at a given FeO_T (Höfer et al., 1994; Fialin et al., 2004) (Figure 3.1b). To measure the $\text{FeL}\alpha$ peak position, wavescans across the $\text{FeL}\alpha$ peak are collected and a peak-fitting algorithm is applied to locate its wavelength. This method has been applied to silicate glass with a statistical error on $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ of ± 0.05 , although the error on individual analyses was greater (Fialin et al., 2004). Alternatively, the flank method uses changes in the wavelength and intensity of both the $\text{FeL}\alpha$ and $\text{FeL}\beta$ peaks by measuring the intensity ratio of positions on the low wavelength flank of $\text{FeL}\alpha$ ($\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$) and high wavelength flank of $\text{FeL}\beta$ ($\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}$), termed $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ (Höfer et al., 1994; Höfer, 2002; Höfer and Brey, 2007) (Figure 3.1b). These flank positions coincide with the L_2 and L_3 absorption edges and, as the Fe^{2+} content changes, the L_3 absorption edge shifts. The sensitivity of the flank method results from the opposite sense of intensity change at each of the flank positions, as $\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ is on the high absorption side of the L_3 absorption edge, whereas $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}$ is on the low absorption side of the L_2 absorption edge, which utilises changes in both peak position and intensities (Höfer et al., 1994). Optimum flank positions can be found by collecting absorption spectra or using the maximum and minimum in the difference spectrum between samples with different Fe concentration and oxidation states (Figure 3.1b; Höfer and Brey, 2007). The $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ intensity ratio is dependent primarily on total ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}), with a secondary dependence on total Fe (Fe_T), hence

$$\text{Fe}^{2+} = A + B \cdot (\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}) + C \cdot \text{Fe}_\text{T} + D \cdot \text{Fe}_\text{T} \cdot (\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}) \quad (3.1)$$

where A , B , C , and D are fitting coefficients (Höfer and Brey, 2007). The flank method has greater sensitivity than the peak shift method and does not require wavescans as measurements are made at two specific, pre-

defined wavelengths (Höfer et al., 1994; Zhang et al., 2018). This method has been applied to some mineral groups (e.g., garnet, spinel) with an error on $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ of ± 0.02 (Höfer and Brey, 2007) and silicate glass to within ± 0.1 (Zhang et al., 2018).

The FeL lines have low intensity and therefore high beam currents and/or long count times are required to record them. Silicate glass is typically unstable under these conditions, leading to changes in Fe oxidation state during analysis (Fialin et al., 2004, 2011; Fialin and Wagner, 2012; Zhang et al., 2018). Similar problems have also been observed for Fe in amphiboles (Wagner et al., 2008; Lamb et al., 2012) and S in silicate glass and anhydrite (Wallace and Carmichael, 1994; Rowe et al., 2007; Klimm et al., 2012). Fialin and Wagner (2012) observed two competing mechanisms of redox change during electron beam irradiation of alkali-bearing silicate glass leading to either oxidation or reduction. As glass is an insulator, electrons are trapped within the subsurface during electron beam irradiation, causing a region of negative charge to build-up at depth in the sample, even with a conductive coat (e.g., Section 2.2.4; Cazaux, 1996). Alkali ions (predominantly Na^+ , but also K^+) migrate towards the region of negative charge (e.g., Humphreys et al., 2006) leaving behind interstitial O^{2-} that migrates and either outgasses or combines with two FeO precipitating Fe_2O_3 , thus causing oxidation (e.g., Lineweaver, 1963). This is different to oxidation processes driven by changes in oxygen fugacity. For basaltic glass, Fe^{3+} is stabilised by the migration of Na^+ and K^+ towards them preventing Fe_2O_3 precipitation (Cooper et al., 1996). Concurrently, during electron beam irradiation electrons move away from the negatively charged region from O to Fe^{3+} sites resulting in net reduction (Nishida, 1995).

To minimise beam damage and prevent redox changes a sample can be moved during analysis, which reduces the electron dose per unit area (Métrich and Clocchiatti, 1996; Rowe et al., 2007; Fialin et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2018). Unfortunately, this requires large regions of glass for analysis making it unfeasible for analysing small areas, such as melt inclusions and interstitial glasses. Therefore, we adapt the flank method for high spatial resolution analysis of silicate glass due to its greater sensitivity and the ability to measure at single spectrometer positions (Höfer et al., 1994). This is important because it is easier to measure time-dependent changes at specific wavelengths rather than using wavescans, as required for the peak shift method. We measured $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ over time, based on the time-dependent intensity (TDI) technique first developed for alkali migration during EPMA of glasses by Nielsen and Sigurdsson (1981). $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ is extrapolated to time zero to correct for changes over time, which we refer to as the time-dependent ratio (TDR) correction, comparable to TDI corrections for alkalis (Section 2.2.3). Due to the small sample size of silicate glasses analysed by Fialin and Wagner (2012) and Zhang et al. (2018), the controls on Fe redox processes during electron beam irradiation have not been explored and, crucially, few hydrous glasses have been analysed. Therefore, we also investigate the compositional and analytical controls on Fe redox changes (Section 3.5).

3.2. Samples

Silicate glass of known (68 samples) and unknown (47 samples) Fe oxidation state from a variety of studies were mounted in epoxy and carbon coated (~ 15 nm thickness). The sample set covers a wide compositional range (anhydrous normalised SiO_2 43–78 wt%, total alkalis ($\text{Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O}$) 1–12 wt%, and H_2O 0–10 wt%; Figure 3.2a and Table 3.1), which are used to investigate the effect of composition on Fe oxidation state changes during analysis. Silicate glass of known Fe oxidation state (independently measured using wet

chemistry, $\mu\text{Mössbauer}$ or μXANES), spanning 0.1–1.0 $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ and 2–18 wt% FeO_T (Figure 3.2b), are used to calibrate the technique.

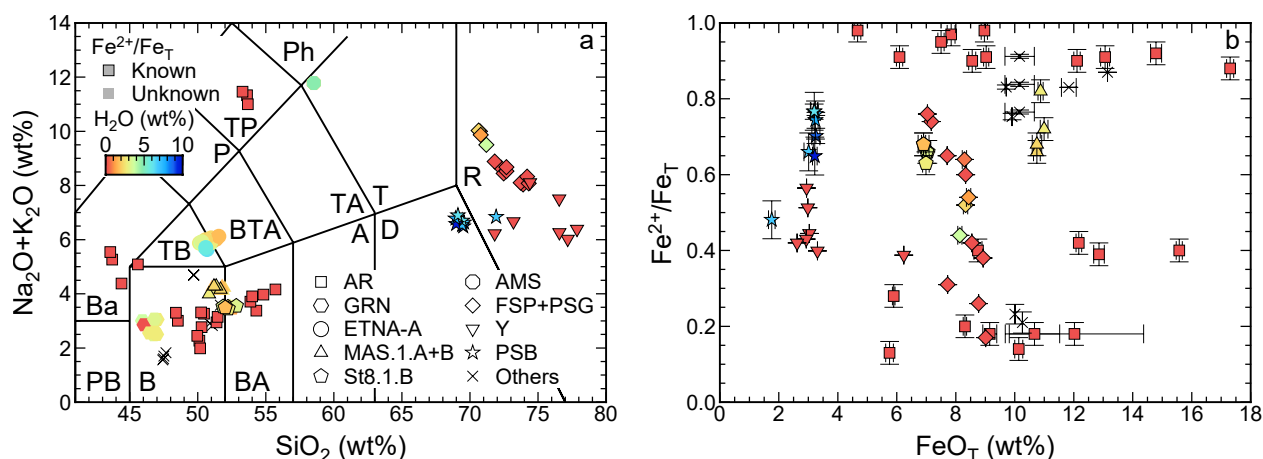


Figure 3.2: (a) Total alkalis ($\text{Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O}$) against silica (where SiO_2 , Na_2O , and K_2O are normalised to the volatile-free total), and (b) $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ against FeO_T for samples with known Fe oxidation state. Symbol shape indicates glass composition (Table 3.1), colour indicates H_2O concentration, and a black outline indicates known Fe oxidation state; those without an outline have unknown Fe oxidation state. TAS classification abbreviations: PB = picrobasalt, B = basalt, BA = basaltic andesite, A = andesite, D = dacite, TB = trachybasalt, BTA = basaltic trachyandesite, TA = trachyandesite, T = trachyte, R = rhyolite, Ba = basanite, P = phonotephrite, TP = tephriphonolite, and Ph = phonolite.

There are 16 suites of experimental silicate glasses that have different average glass compositions with variable Fe oxidation state and/or H_2O . The normalised (volatile-free) average glass compositions, which are either taken from the literature or measured using EPMA, are given in Table 3.1. AR samples are anhydrous, low-silica glasses with a range of glass compositions: KLA-1-6-22 (Fuchs et al., 2014), SC1 (Botcharnikov et al., 2008), 140ox (Almeev et al., 2007), LS (previously unpublished studies conducted at the Institut für Mineralogie, Leibniz Universität Hannover, Germany), PF22 (Wengorsch et al., 2012), and BezBA (Almeev et al., 2013). These glass compositions were re-synthesised at various oxygen fugacities and analysed using wet chemistry by Zhang et al. (2018), where they have been analysed by the flank method using a moving stage approach. Hydrous, low-silica glasses are GRN (Stamper et al., 2014), ETNA-A (ETNA24 from Chapter 4 and ETNA01–ETNA17 and ETNA25–ETNA30 from Chapter 5), MAS.1.A, MAS.1.B and St8.1.B (Lesne et al., 2011), and AMS (Di Genova et al., 2014). GRN samples may have suffered oxidation during μXANES (Cottrell et al., 2018), therefore their reported Fe oxidation state values are not considered further and the samples are only used to explore the effects of composition on redox changes during EPMA. The high-silica glasses range from peralkaline (FSP in Di Genova et al. 2016; and PSG in Di Genova et al. 2013) to calcalkaline (Y in Di Genova et al. 2017b; and PSB in Riker et al. 2015), with both anhydrous (FSP and Y) and hydrous (PSG and PSB) compositions.

Additional anhydrous, low-silica glasses analysed are AII and LW (Table B.1, Cottrell et al., 2009), Smithsonian microbeam basaltic glass standards VG-2 and VG-A99 (Table 2.4, Jarosewich et al., 1980) and PU (Table B.1, Ulmer, 1989; Blundy et al., 2018).

Table 3.1: Normalised (volatile-free), average glass composition for the suites of experimental silicate glasses.

	AR		AR		AR		AR		AR		AR		ETNA-A		
	KLA-1-6-22	AR	SC1	AR	140ox	AR	LS	AR	PF22	AR	BezBA	GRN	ETNA-A		
<i>n</i>	4		4		3		4		3		4		10		24
SiO ₂	44.32		49.42		50.08		51.85		53.53		54.6		46.66		50.75
TiO ₂	3.91		2.91		0.99		3.51		1.60		0.99		1.00		1.72
Al ₂ O ₃	13.24		15.37		15.83		12.02		19.66		17.53		13.55		17.63
FeO _T	10.96		11.09		8.68		15.04		5.45		7.92		9.60		10.03
MnO	0.20		0.00		0.17		0.33		0.17		0.18		0.20		0.33
MgO	9.20		6.71		9.81		4.22		2.88		5.92		12.96		6.12
CaO	8.76		11.39		12.11		9.30		4.97		8.56		13.05		7.02
Na ₂ O	2.99		2.78		2.16		2.93		7.49		2.99		2.16		4.05
K ₂ O	0.95		0.31		0.07		0.26		3.78		0.95		0.58		1.85
P ₂ O ₅	0.16		0.03		0.08		0.54		0.48		0.16		0.24		0.5
H ₂ O	0		0		0		0		0		0		^a 0.28–3.50		^a 1.58–6.07
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	^c 0.14–0.98		^c 0.19–0.95		^c 0.18–0.97		^c 0.18–0.92		^c 0.13–0.98		^c 0.20–0.91		^e		n.d.
<i>n</i>	6		6		8		3		9		4		7		8
SiO ₂	50.86		50.84		51.86		57.72		73.16		70.84		75.37		69.61
TiO ₂	1.17		1.18		0.86		0.39		0.43		0.50		0.17		0.35
Al ₂ O ₃	18.91		18.76		19.13		18.4		8.95		9.24		12.25		16.06
FeO _T	11.18		11.19		7.53		4.51		8.14		8.49		3.43		3.30
MnO	n.d.		n.d.		n.d.		0.10		0.35		0.38		0.04		0.06
MgO	3.41		3.17		6.24		1.46		0.17		0.07		0.53		0.78
CaO	9.23		9.41		10.85		4.23		0.44		0.60		1.45		3.05
Na ₂ O	2.77		2.9		2.67		3.72		4.34		5.78		2.69		4.81
K ₂ O	1.23		1.29		1.80		7.90		4.08		4.07		4.06		1.87
P ₂ O ₅	n.d.		n.d.		n.d.		0.19		0		0.03		0.03		0.10
H ₂ O	^a 1.58–2.86		^a 1.64–2.55		^a 1.03–3.38		^b 1.29–4.78		0		^b 0.72–3.57		0		^a 6.00–9.62
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	^c 0.66–0.72		^c 0.68–0.82		^c 0.63–0.68		n.d.		^c 0.17–0.76		^c 0.44–0.64		^c 0.39–0.56		^d 0.48–0.77

Notes: n is the number of samples in the experimental suite. Oxides (in wt%) are measured using EPMA (all Fe reported as FeO, FeO_T), except H₂O which is measured by ^aSIMS, ^bKFT, or 0 indicates assumed due to experimental conditions. Fe²⁺/Fe_T is measured by ^cwet chemistry, ^dμXANES or not determined (n.d.). ^eFe oxidation state measurements may have suffered from oxidation during μXANES and are therefore not used in this study (Cottrell et al., 2018). Individual glass compositions are available in Table B.1, except ETNA-A which are in Tables 4.10 (ETNA24) and 5.6 (ETNA01–ETNA17 and ETNA25–ETNA30).

3.3. Methods

3.3.1. FeL wescans

Wescans of the FeL peaks on glasses with varying FeO_T and Fe oxidation state (Table 3.2) were analysed to examine the controls on peak position and intensity. Data were collected on the JEOL JXA 8530F Hyperprobe at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, UK, using a 50 nA beam current, 10 μm beam diameter, and 15 or 30 kV accelerating voltage. Three spectrometers, with two TAP and one TAPH crystals, were moved 0.071 mm per step for 100 steps with 0.5 s dwell time over the FeL peaks whilst the stage moved at 1 $\mu\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ to minimise beam damage. To improve signal to noise ratio, multiple wescans (40–80, depending on the accelerating voltage and glass FeO_T) were collected, and the spectra from the three spectrometers were combined to produce a single wescan per sample.

Table 3.2: Fe content and oxidation state of glasses analysed using wescans.

Sample	AR10	AR14	AR16	AR19	AR20
Glass composition	140ox	PF22	140ox	LS	PF22
FeO_T (wt%)	9.16 ± 0.24	5.75 ± 0.13	7.85 ± 0.13	14.79 ± 0.19	4.67 ± 0.12
$\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$	0.18 ± 0.03	0.13 ± 0.03	0.97 ± 0.03	0.97 ± 0.03	0.98 ± 0.03
<i>Notes:</i> Glass composition refers to Table 3.1. FeO_T (all Fe reported as FeO) measured using EPMA and $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ using wet chemistry. Errors are of one standard deviation (1σ).					

3.3.2. Time-dependent ratio $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ measurements

Selecting flank positions

To identify the optimum flank positions for $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$, the method of Höfer and Brey (2007) (Section 3.1 and Figure 3.1b) was used. Two spectra, representing the range of FeO_T and Fe oxidation state (AR14 and AR19, Figure 3.3a), were normalised to the maximum intensity of their $\text{FeL}\alpha$ peak from which the difference spectrum was calculated (AR14 – AR19, Figures 3.3c and d). Optimum flank positions correspond to the maximum (low wavelength flank of $\text{FeL}\alpha$, $\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$) and minimum (high wavelength flank of $\text{FeL}\beta$, $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}$) of the difference spectrum. To avoid collecting wescans on these glasses every session, the flank positions were measured relative to the $\text{FK}\alpha$ peak measured on MgF_2 for each TAP/TAPH crystal. This reduced the time required to find the flank positions during future analytical sessions and minimised the area damaged by electron beam irradiation.

Electron probe set-up

Each spectrometer measured a single wavelength and the spectrometer set-up (referred to by crystal) was two TAP crystals to measure $\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$, TAPH for $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}$, LLIF for $\text{FeK}\alpha$, and PETH for $\text{KK}\alpha$. At the wavelengths of interest, the TAPH crystal offers twice the peak intensity of the TAP crystals, and the $\text{FeL}\beta$ has roughly half the intensity of the $\text{FeL}\alpha$ peak, therefore we chose the above combination of spectrometers to maximise count rates. The full-width half-maximum wavelength resolution for $\text{FK}\alpha$ in MgF_2 here is 0.0813, 0.0835, and 0.1034 Å (0.8792, 1.1235, and 0.9079 mm spectrometer units, L) for the two TAP and TAPH crystals, respectively (Buse and Kearns, 2018). Differential pulse height analysis (PHA) mode was used to remove interferences such as the 9th order $\text{FeK}\alpha$, and PHA scans were collected every session on each spectrometer

on $\text{FK}\alpha$ in MgF_2 . Na is typically the most mobile element measured during electron beam irradiation and therefore commonly used to monitor beam damage. However, in the absence of an additional TAP crystal, we measured K (also highly mobile) instead on a PETH crystal. For each analytical session, $\text{FeK}\alpha$ was peaked-up on BCR-2 (USGS basaltic glass standard, Table 2.4), $\text{KK}\alpha$ on sanidine (Table 2.3), and the peak position of $\text{FK}\alpha$ was measured on MgF_2 to calculate the wavelengths of the flank positions on each TAP/TAPH crystal. Spectrometers were static during analysis as backgrounds are not required for flank analyses (Höfer and Brey, 2007). As no other elements (or backgrounds) were measured, no matrix correction could be performed to quantify Fe or K, thus only their relative intensity over time is used. Analytical conditions were a 15 kV accelerating voltage, 50 nA beam current, and 4–15 μm beam diameter, which allows the analysis of small volumes of glass (Table 3.3). Intensity measurements were collected over 5 s for a total duration of ~ 150 s on the same spot of glass. Ten repeat analyses on fresh glass per sample were collected, resulting in a total analysis area of ~ 20 – 60 μm diameter. Data were collected over five sessions. A summary of the analytical protocol is provided in Section D.1.

Table 3.3: EPMA conditions for time-dependent ratio $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ measurements.

Conditions	Accelerating voltage (kV)	Beam current (nA)	Beam diameter (μm)	No. of analyses	Total duration (s)
1	15	50	4	10	150
2	15	50	10	10	150
3	15	50	15	10	150
4	15	50	20	10	150
5	15	500	10	1	150
6	30	50	10	10	150

Notes: Conditions 1–3 were used to quantify Fe oxidation state, and additional measurements were made at conditions 4–6 on AR10, AR16, MAS.1.B4, and PSB63 to investigate redox stability.

Redox stability

To investigate the effect of analytical conditions on redox changes, additional measurements were made at different analytical conditions (Table 3.3) on four glasses chosen to represent the range of glass compositions studied (Table 3.4). AR10 and AR16 are anhydrous low-silica glasses, that are oxidised and reduced, respectively. MAS.1.B4 and PSB63 are hydrous glasses that are low- and high-silica, respectively.

Data processing

To check for sample homogeneity, $\text{FeK}\alpha$ was compared between repeat analyses. If the $\text{FeK}\alpha$ intensity was significantly outside the counting error for other repeats, the erroneous repeat analysis was removed from further processing and, if the sample was too inhomogeneous, the sample was not processed further. The analyses were then averaged at each time interval for $\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ (separately for each spectrometer), $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}$, $\text{FeK}\alpha$, and $\text{KK}\alpha$. Using these averages at each time interval, $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}$ was divided by the sum of $\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ from the two spectrometers to calculate $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$. Errors on $\text{FeK}\alpha$, $\text{KK}\alpha$, $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$, and time are the standard deviation of the repeat measurements. An exponential equation of the following form was fitted to each sample:

$$I = (I_0 - I_\infty) \exp\left(\frac{I'_0 t}{I_0 - I_\infty}\right) + I_\infty \quad (3.2)$$

Where I is the $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ intensity ratio and t is time, subscripts refer to the values at time = 0 and ∞ , and I'_0 is the rate of change of I with time at time = 0. When the minimisation failed to converge, I_∞ was fixed to the last measured value for the sample. The error in both these cases is the standard error on the fit coefficients. In those cases where $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ was constant with time, convergence is not possible, therefore the average of $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ with time was used, where the error was the standard deviation of these data. Analyses with large errors ($>\pm 0.1$ for I_0 and $>\pm 0.01$ for I'_0), likely due to inhomogeneity, extremely rapid redox changes or analytical problems, are discarded.

Table 3.4: Glass compositions of AR10, AR16, MAS.1.B4, and PSB63.

	AR10	<i>s.d.</i>	AR16	<i>s.d.</i>	MAS.1.B4	<i>s.d.</i>	PSB63	<i>s.d.</i>
SiO_2	49.91	0.30	50.46	0.27	49.72	0.22	64.21	0.32
TiO_2	0.97	0.02	1.00	0.02	1.16	0.03	0.33	0.02
Al_2O_3	15.67	0.01	16.08	0.03	16.60	0.05	14.81	0.18
FeO_T	9.16	0.24	7.85	0.13	10.88	0.09	3.26	0.08
MnO	0.17	0.01	0.18	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.07	0.06
MgO	9.49	0.02	10.38	0.05	3.28	0.03	0.75	0.06
CaO	11.89	0.10	12.53	0.05	8.89	0.07	2.91	0.06
Na_2O	2.20	0.20	1.93	0.03	2.89	0.04	4.35	0.28
K_2O	0.06	0.01	0.06	0.01	1.35	0.01	1.70	0.12
P_2O_5	0.08	0.01	0.09	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.10	0.05
H_2O	0		0		2.55	0.13	7.11	0.16
$\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$	^a 0.18	0.03	^a 0.97	0.03	^a 0.82	0.03	^b 0.76	0.02

Notes: Oxides (in wt%) are measured using EPMA (all Fe reported as FeO, FeO_T), except H_2O which is measured by SIMS or 0 indicates assumed due to experimental conditions. $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ is measured by ^awet chemistry or ^b μXANES . Errors of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) are shown in *italics*.

3.3.3. Raman spectroscopy

Raman spectroscopy was used to detect the presence of nanolites before and after electron beam irradiation as nanolites alter the Raman spectra of silicate glass. Magnetite nanolites produce a peak due at $\sim 670 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, which also decreases the intensity of the surrounding silicate peaks (Di Genova et al., 2017a,b). Carbon coats were removed prior to analysis. Raman spectra were collected using the Thermo Scientific DXRxi Raman Imaging Microscope at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, UK, with a green (520 nm) laser, $50\times$ (long distance) or $100\times$ objective, and 3–5 mW power to avoid sample oxidation. An extended grating was used to also collect data on H_2O concentration. All samples, except AMS, FSP, PSG, and Y which have been previously analysed by Di Genova et al. (2017a,b), were analysed on non-irradiated areas of glass. Selected glasses that cover a range of compositions (ETNA08, MAS.1.A5, FSP1, FSP9, PSG6, and PSB63) were additionally analysed following electron beam irradiation.

3.4. Results

3.4.1. Electron probe micro-analysis

Wavelength and intensity changes of $\text{Fe}L$ lines in silicate glass

For the same Fe oxidation state, peak intensity increases and peak positions shift to higher wavelengths with increasing FeO_T (Figure 3.3a). For the same FeO_T , oxidised samples have greater peak intensities and lower wavelength peak positions than reduced samples (Figure 3.3a). At higher accelerating voltages (30 vs. 15 kV) the intensity of $\text{Fe}L\alpha$ and $\text{Fe}L\beta$ decrease, but there is no appreciable shift in peak positions (Figures 3.3b and c). Therefore, there is no appreciable change in optimum flank positions, although the difference between the flank intensities decreases (Figure 3.3d).

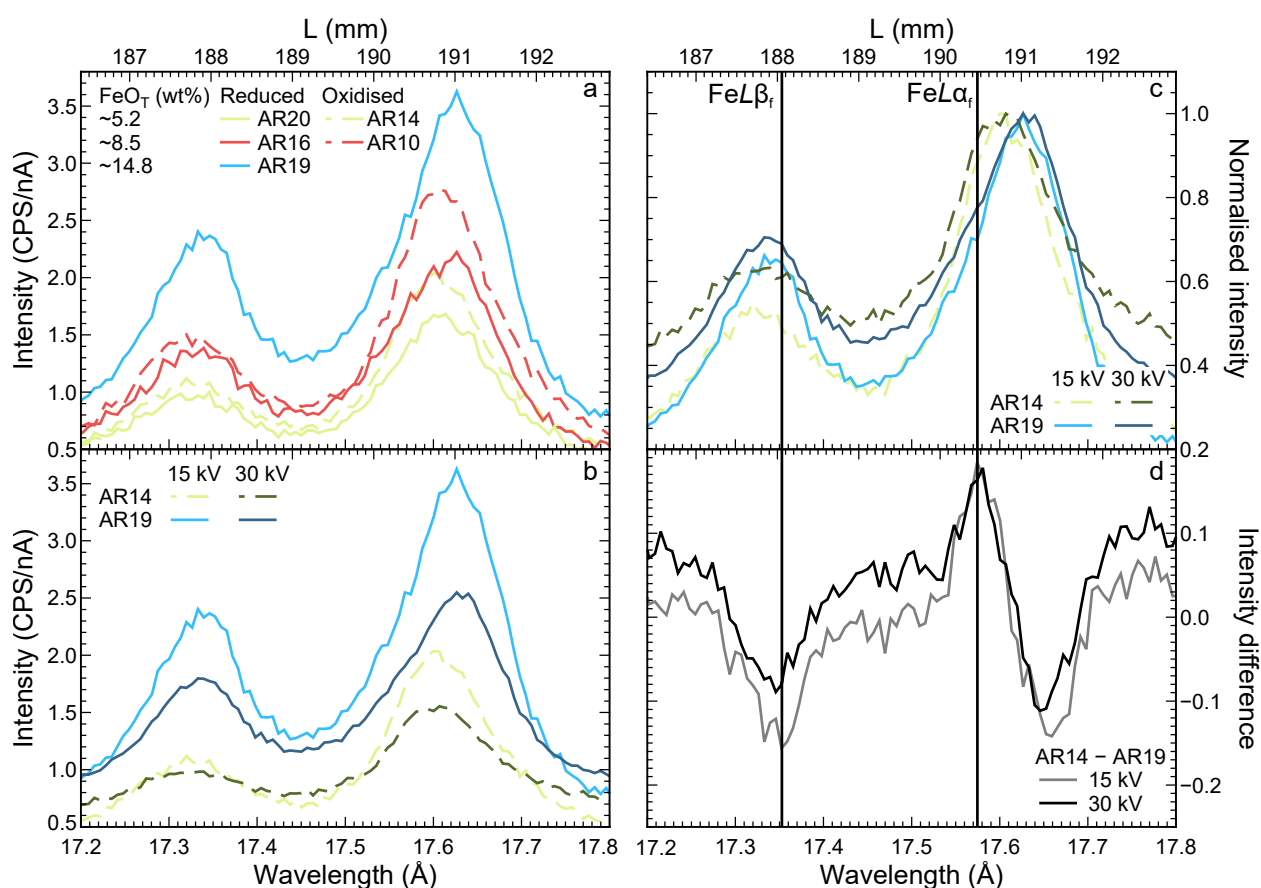


Figure 3.3: Wavelength scans of $\text{Fe}L$ for silicate glass (see Table 3.2 for compositions). Analytical conditions were: 50 nA beam current and 10 μm beam diameter, whilst the stage moved at 1 $\mu\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Spectrometer position (L) is shown along the top and equivalent wavelength along the bottom. **(a)** Different FeO_T and Fe oxidation states at 15 kV accelerating voltage, **(b)** different accelerating voltages, **(c)** different accelerating voltages with the intensity normalised to the maximum $\text{Fe}L\alpha$ intensity, and **(d)** difference spectra (AR14 – AR19) at different accelerating voltages, calculated from the normalised spectra, with optimum flank positions shown (vertical lines). The $\text{Fe}L\beta_f/\text{Fe}L\alpha_f$ ratio is 0.55 for AR14 and 0.92 for AR19 at 15 kV. Data are available in Table D.1.

Time-dependent intensity changes during electron beam irradiation

During electron beam irradiation, the intensity of $\text{KK}\alpha$ remains stable (anhydrous glass) or decreases (hydrous glass) over time (Figure 3.4), whereas for $\text{FeK}\alpha$ the intensity remains stable (anhydrous glass) or increases (hydrous glass) (Figure 3.5). The ratio of $\text{FeL}\beta_f/\text{FeL}\alpha_f$ increases (anhydrous low-silica), remains stable (anhydrous low-silica and hydrous high-silica) or decreases (hydrous low-silica) over time (Figure 3.6). In those cases where intensity changes are observed, the rate typically increases with decreasing beam diameter, decreasing accelerating voltage, and increasing beam current. Data were collected during different sessions, therefore differences in the absolute intensity at different conditions are not meaningful.

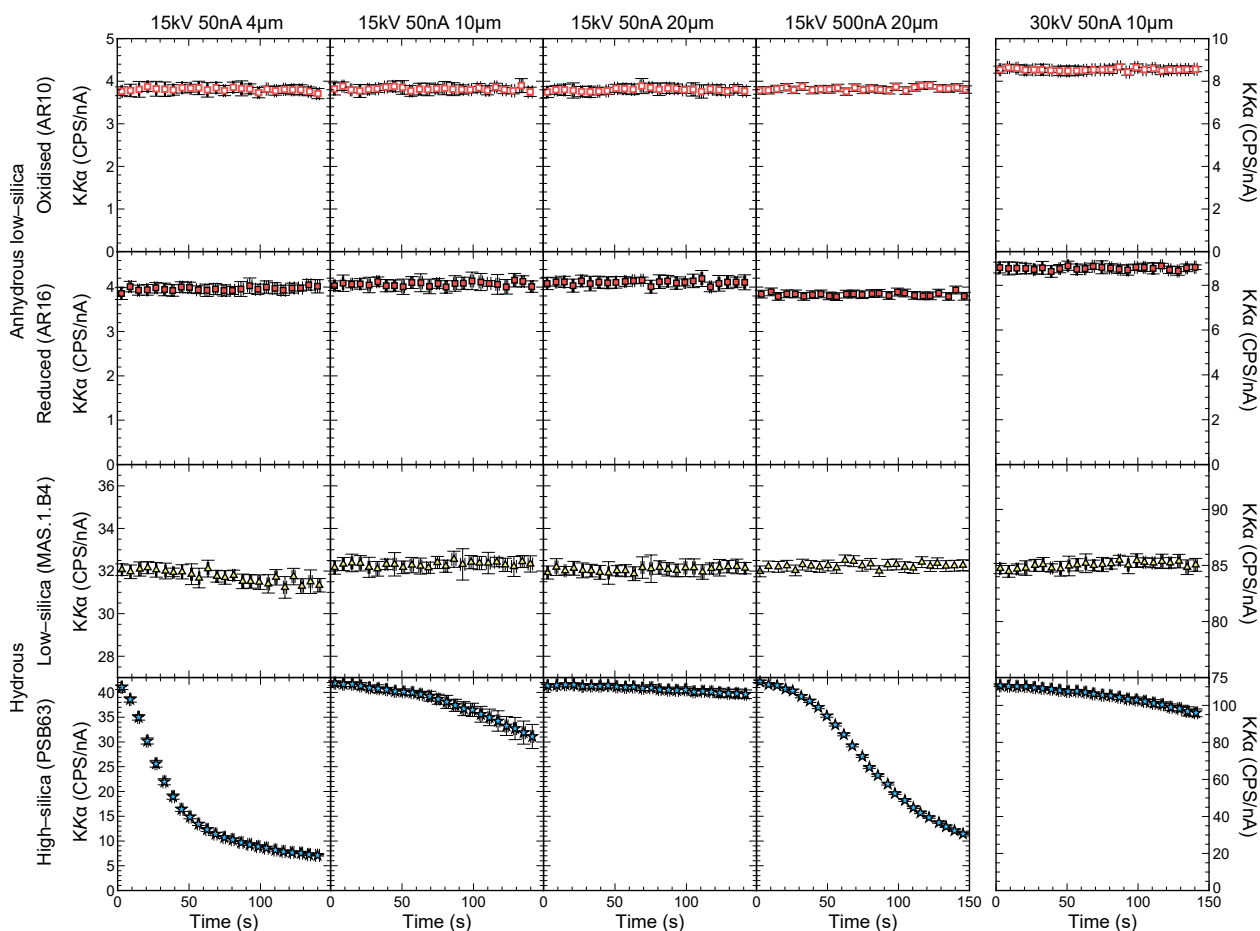


Figure 3.4: Intensity of $\text{KK}\alpha$ with time. Analytical conditions (accelerating voltage, beam current, beam diameter) shown along the top and sample description on the left-hand side. Symbols and colours as Figure 3.2a except that open/closed symbol indicates initial Fe oxidation state: open symbols are oxidised ($\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T < 0.2$); closed symbols are reduced ($\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T > 0.7$).

3.4.2. Raman spectroscopy

Before electron beam irradiation

The majority of glasses analysed are nanolite-free prior to electron beam irradiation (Figures 3.7a and b). Exceptions are AR37 (composition LS) and ETNA(2) (samples ETNA03, ETNA06, ETNA07, ETNA08, ETNA14, ETNA16, and ETNA30; Appendix E), with a peak at $\sim 670 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ indicating magnetite nanolites. Magnetite nanolites were detected in AMS4 and Y-L using Raman spectroscopy by Di Genova et al.

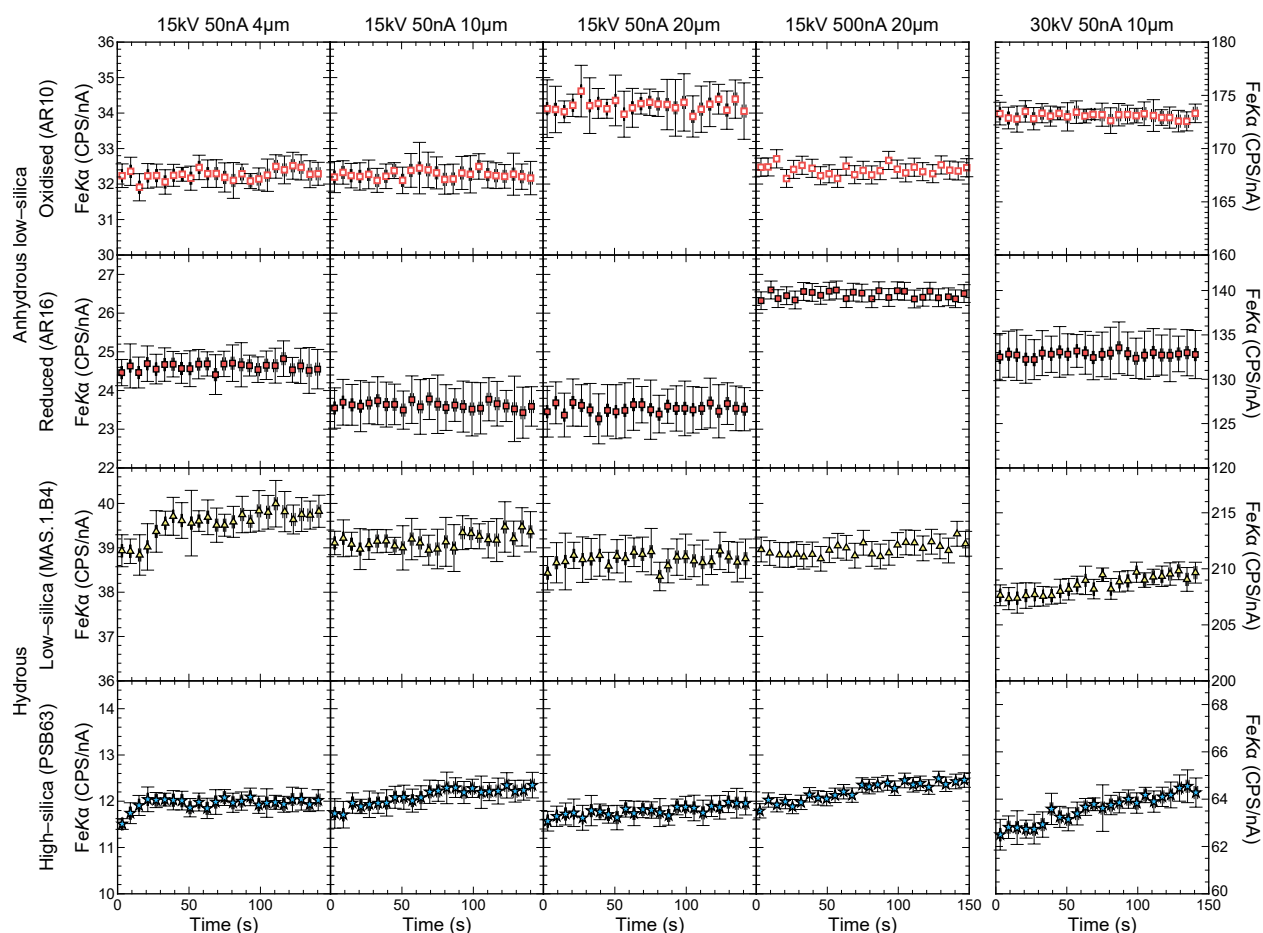


Figure 3.5: Intensity of $\text{FeK}\alpha$ with time. Analytical conditions (accelerating voltage, beam current, beam diameter) shown along the top and sample description on the left-hand side. Symbols and colours as Figure 3.4.

(2017a,b).

After electron beam irradiation

Most glasses analysed following electron beam irradiation (MAS.1.A4, FSP1, FSP9, and PSG6) exhibit new magnetite nanolites (peak at $\sim 670 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) when irradiated using a $4 \mu\text{m}$ beam diameter implying oxidation (Figure 3.7c). Additionally, ETNA08, MAS.1.A4, and PSG6 have a new peak at $\sim 1350 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, which corresponds to haematite (RUFF Raman spectra database, <http://ruff.info/>, Lafuente et al. 2015), implying the formation of haematite nanolites following electron beam irradiation (Figure 3.7c). PSB63 shows no evidence for the presence of Fe-bearing nanolites following electron beam irradiation. The H_2O peak ($\sim 3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) shows a decrease in height after electron beam irradiation for hydrous samples (ETNA08, MAS.1.A4, PSG6, and PSB63), implying loss of water.

3.5. Controls on Fe redox changes in silicate glass during electron beam irradiation

The ratio of $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ over time increased, remained stable, or decreased (Figure 3.6), which could be due to a variety of causes as $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ depends on Fe concentration, oxidation state, and coordination.

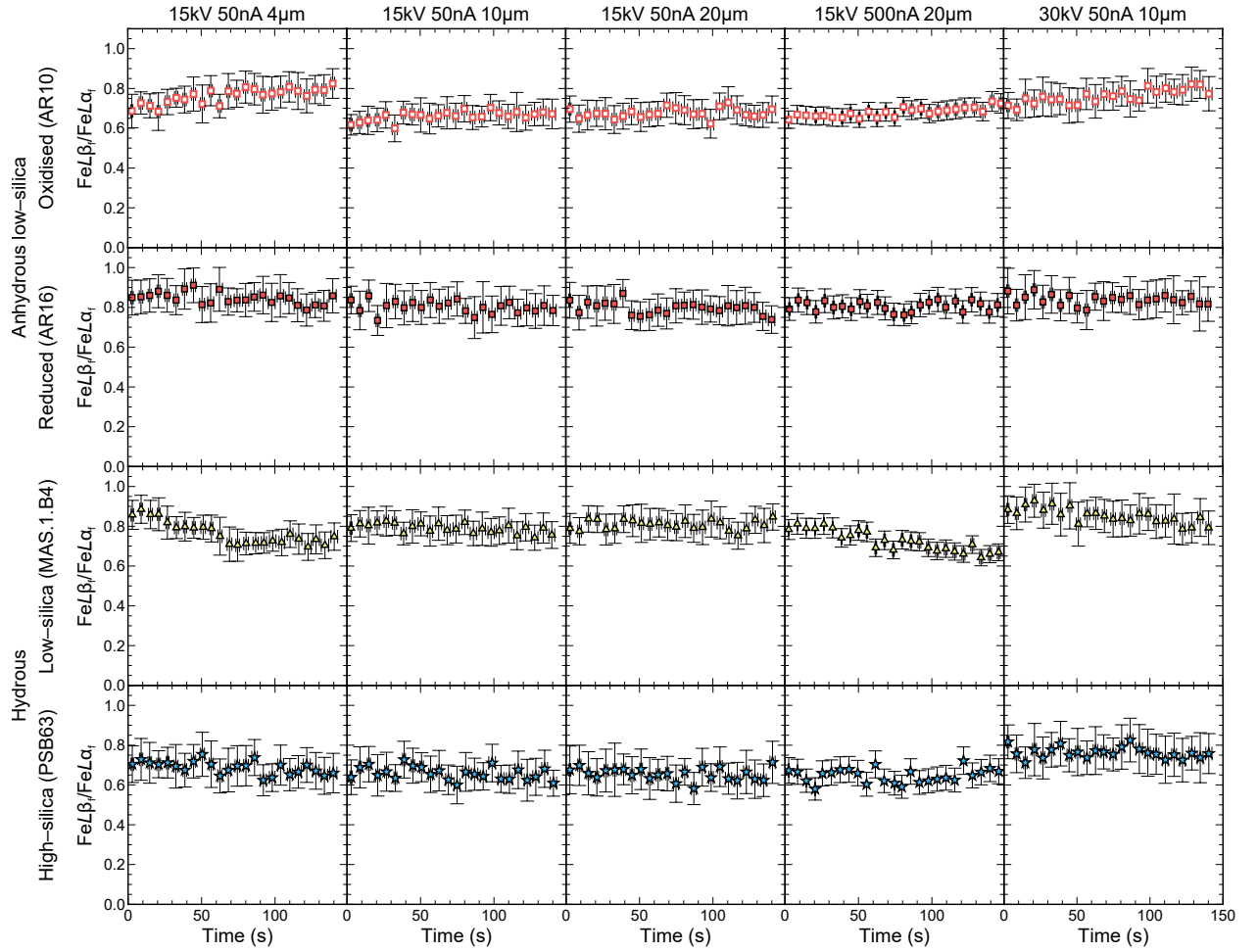


Figure 3.6: Intensity ratio of $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ with time. Analytical conditions (accelerating voltage, beam current, beam diameter) shown along the top and sample description on the left-hand side. Symbols and colours as Figure 3.4.

$\text{FeK}\alpha$ increases over time (Figure 3.5), implying an increase in Fe_T . This is due to the process of ‘grow-in’ (Morgan and London, 2005), where the concentration of immobile elements (e.g., Si, Al, and Fe) increases due to the migration of alkalis (e.g., Na^+ and K^+ , Figure 3.4) and H^+ (Figure 3.7c) towards the build-up of negative charge at depth (e.g., Humphreys et al., 2006) and possible density changes. The increase in Fe_T implied by the increase in $\text{FeK}\alpha$ for hydrous silicate glass (MAS.1.B4 and PSB63, Figure 3.5) is small (~ 0.13 wt% FeO_T). This is calculated to cause a negligible change on $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ (~ 0.004 , within measurement error), and therefore changes due to Fe concentration are not considered further.

Additional carbon contamination can be deposited on the sample during electron beam irradiation (Bastin and Heijligers, 1988). This can change X-ray intensities over time due to reduction of the electron landing energy caused by energy loss within, and X-ray absorption by, the contaminant (Reed, 1975). The former is negligible at the high voltages used here, whereas the latter should not affect $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ as the mass absorption coefficients of $\text{FeL}\alpha$ and $\text{FeL}\beta$ by carbon are very similar (5762.34 and 5485.53 $\text{cm}^2\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$, respectively, from the FFAST database). To change $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ by 1 % relative (within measurement error) would require >100 nm of carbon contamination (calculated using CalcZAF) during the 150 s analysis. This is far more than has been measured in previous studies (e.g., 8 ± 2 nm over 180 s; Buse et al., 2016), therefore the effect of contamination can be considered negligible.

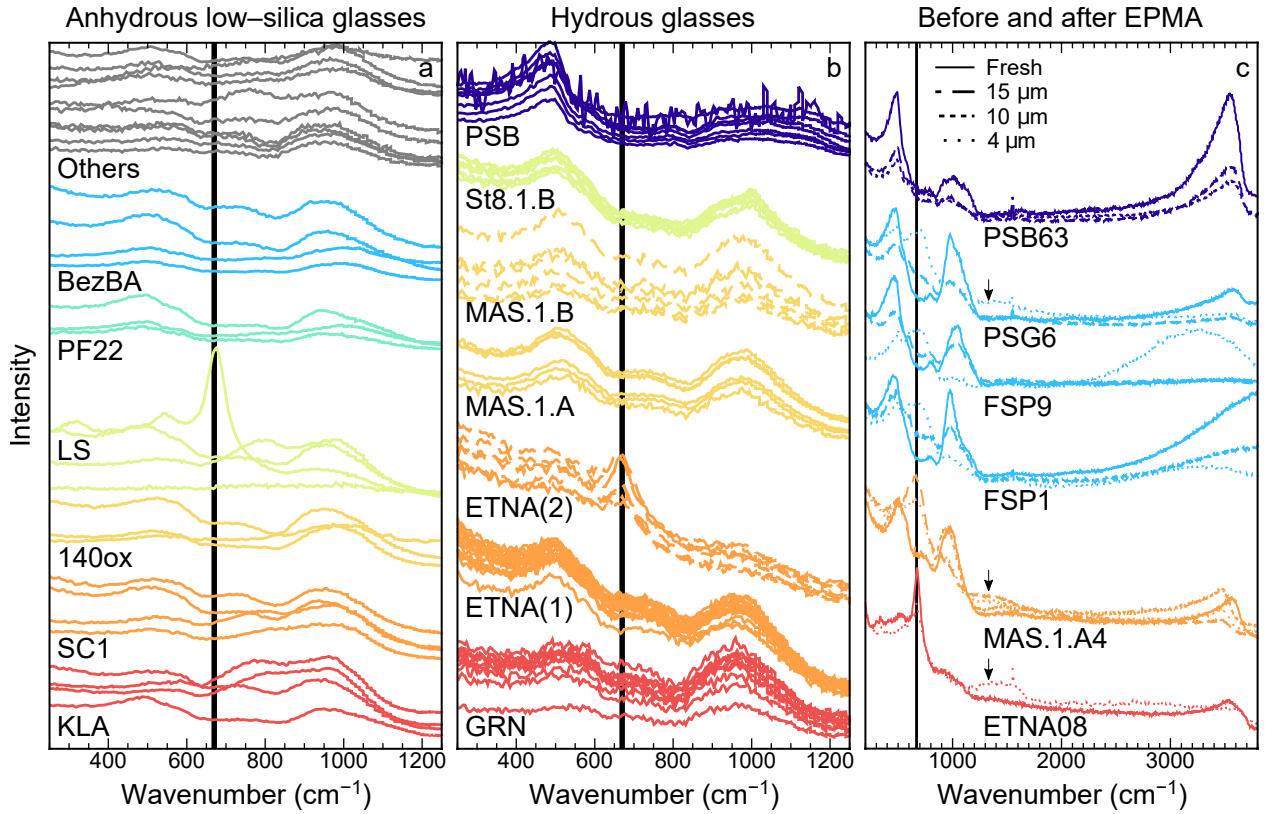


Figure 3.7: Raman spectra (one spectrum shown for each sample) for (a) anhydrous low-silica and (b) hydrous glasses, where spectra are grouped, coloured, and offset vertically by average glass composition (labelled under the group of spectra), and intensity is in arbitrary units, and (c) selected glasses before (‘fresh’) and after (referred to by beam diameter) electron beam irradiation at a 15 kV accelerating voltage, 50 nA beam current, and beam diameter indicated by line style. Black vertical lines indicate the wavenumber of magnetite, and arrows indicate the wavenumber of haematite.

These considerations imply that any changes observed in $\text{Fe}L\beta_f/\text{Fe}L\alpha_f$ are due primarily to changes in Fe oxidation state over time. Increasing $\text{Fe}L\beta_f/\text{Fe}L\alpha_f$ is caused by increasing $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ and hence Fe reduction ($\text{Fe}^{3+} \rightarrow \text{Fe}^{2+}$). Conversely, decreasing $\text{Fe}L\beta_f/\text{Fe}L\alpha_f$ is caused by decreasing $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ and hence Fe oxidation ($\text{Fe}^{2+} \rightarrow \text{Fe}^{3+}$). Finally, no change in $\text{Fe}L\beta_f/\text{Fe}L\alpha_f$ with time implies stable $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ during analysis. The presence of predominantly magnetite nanolites after electron beam irradiation (Figure 3.7c) implies that oxidation proceeds via precipitation of $\text{FeO} \cdot \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, not just Fe_2O_3 , as has been previously suggested (Fialin and Wagner, 2012).

3.5.1. Direction of redox change: Total mobile cations

To investigate the compositional controls on the rate and mechanism of redox changes during electron beam irradiation, we define the parameter total mobile cations (TMC):

$$\text{TMC} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{K}_2\text{O} \quad (3.3)$$

where H_2O , Na_2O , and K_2O are in moles per gram of glass (units: $\text{mol} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$). This provides a maximum estimate of the moles of available oxygen if all the H^+ , Na^+ , and K^+ migrated due to the build-up of negative charge (Humphreys et al., 2006). TMC is typically dominated by H_2O due to the low atomic mass

of H compared to Na and K. Figure 3.8 shows the rate of change of $\text{Fe}L\beta_\text{f}/\text{Fe}L\alpha_\text{f}$ with time at time zero (I'_0) against TMC. Silicate glass with $\text{TMC} < 0.1 \text{ mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ remain stable or reduce over time ($I'_0 \geq 0 \text{ s}^{-1}$), corresponding to anhydrous ($\text{H}_2\text{O} < 0.38 \text{ wt}\%$), alkali-poor ($\text{Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O} < 5.5 \text{ wt}\%$) glasses. Conversely, glasses with $\text{TMC} > 0.1 \text{ mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ remain stable or oxidise over time ($I'_0 \leq 0 \text{ s}^{-1}$) corresponding to either hydrous ($\text{H}_2\text{O} > 1.03 \text{ wt}\%$) or alkali-rich ($11.3 \pm 0.2 \text{ wt}\% \text{ Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O}$) glasses. The mechanisms causing reduction are likely always to occur in the glass during electron beam irradiation, therefore it appears that at $\text{TMC} \geq 0.1 \text{ mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ the rate of oxidation is greater than the rate of reduction, hence oxidation prevails.

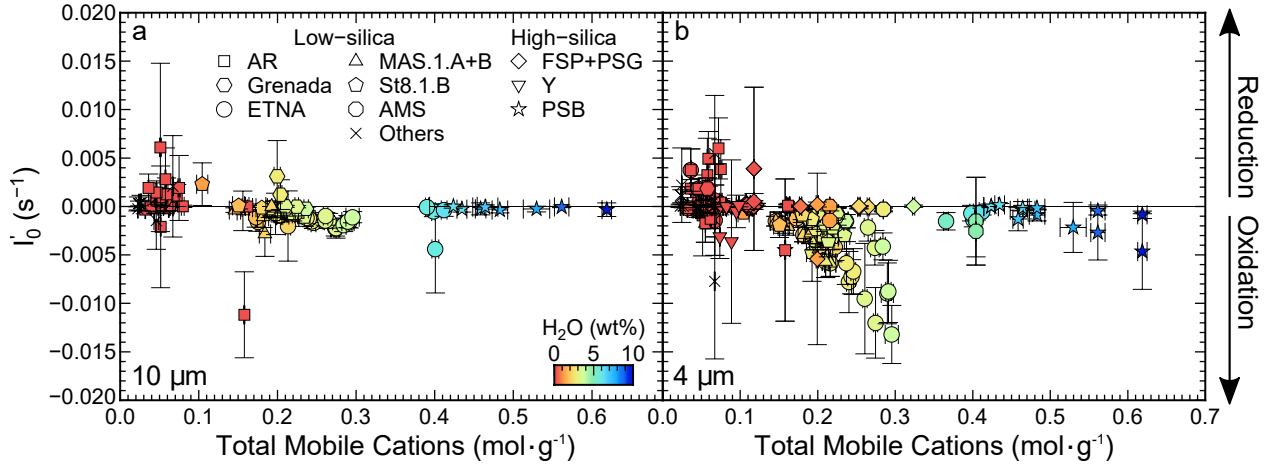


Figure 3.8: Rate of change of $\text{Fe}L\beta_\text{f}/\text{Fe}L\alpha_\text{f}$ with time at time zero (I'_0) against total mobile cations (TMC, Equation 3.3), where symbol shape indicates average glass composition (Table 3.1) and colour indicates H_2O concentration. Analytical conditions were: 15 kV accelerating voltage, 50 nA beam current, and (a) 10 and (b) 4 μm beam diameter. Data are available in Table D.3.

3.5.2. Rate of reduction: Initial Fe oxidation state

Figure 3.9 shows I'_0 against initial $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ for anhydrous, low-silica (43–56 wt% SiO_2) glasses. Using a beam diameter of 4 μm , for a specific glass composition, $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ correlates negatively with rate of reduction (3.9b), whilst at 10 μm there is no correlation (3.9a). Glasses that are mostly reduced ($\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T} > 0.9$) cannot reduce any further and remain stable, therefore reduction is confined to initially oxidised glasses. Between the suites of glasses with different compositions, there is no obvious compositional control on I'_0 .

3.5.3. Rate of oxidation

H_2O concentration

Figure 3.10 shows the rate of change of $\text{Fe}L\beta_\text{f}/\text{Fe}L\alpha_\text{f}$ over time at time zero (I'_0) against TMC for suites of low-silica glasses (43–56 wt% SiO_2) that have variable H_2O concentrations, but constant glass composition. Broadly, I'_0 becomes more negative with increasing TMC using a 4 μm beam diameter (Figure 3.10b), whilst the effect is reduced when using a 10 μm beam diameter (Figure 3.10a). For a fixed glass composition the increase in TMC is due to increasing H_2O concentration, therefore the rate of oxidation increases with increasing H_2O . The diffusivity of H_2O in basaltic glass is dependent on the total H_2O concentration (Okumura and Nakashima, 2006), thus the rate of oxidation increases with increasing H_2O diffusivity. These results show that the migration of H^+ , in addition to Na^+ and K^+ as previously suggested by Fialin and Wagner (2012), leads to oxidation of Fe during electron beam irradiation. In fact, when considering the

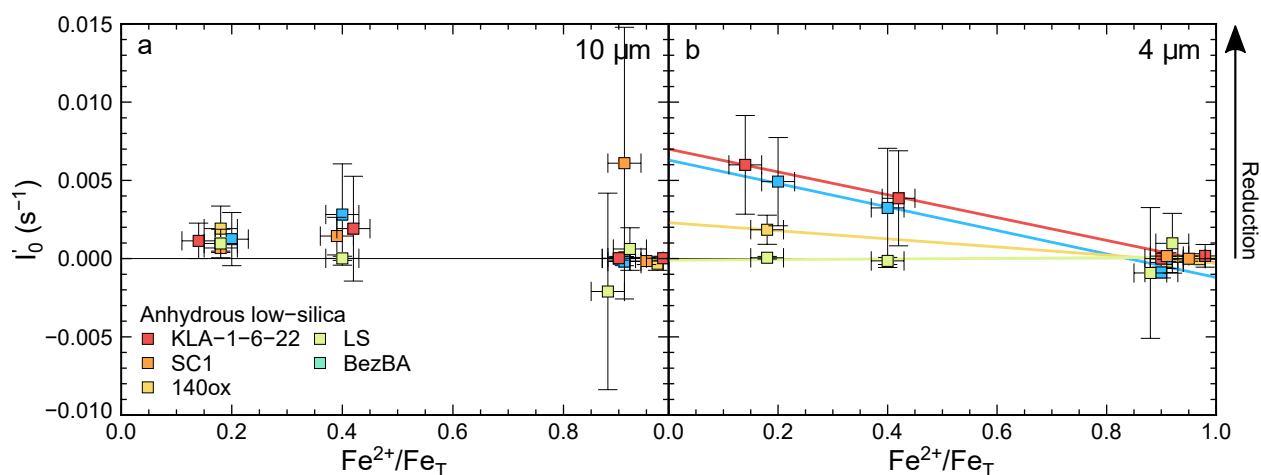


Figure 3.9: Rate of change of $\text{FeL}\beta_f/\text{FeL}\alpha_f$ with time at time zero (I'_0) against $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ for anhydrous low-silica glasses, where symbol colour indicates average glass composition (Table 3.1) and linear regressions are shown in (b) (solid lines). Analytical conditions were: 15 kV accelerating voltage, 50 nA beam current, and (a) 10 and (b) 4 μm beam diameter. Data are available in Table D.3.

mobile cation responsible for Fe oxidation, H^+ plays a more important role than might be expected from its oxide wt% concentration alone due to the low atomic mass of H.

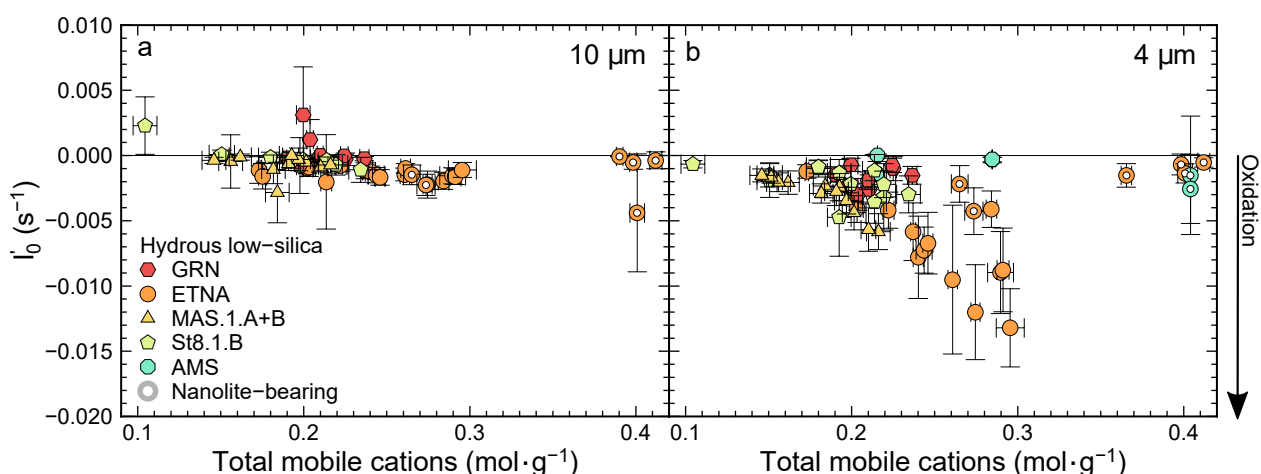


Figure 3.10: Rate of change of $\text{FeL}\beta_f/\text{FeL}\alpha_f$ with time at time zero (I'_0) against total mobile cations (TMC) for hydrous low-silica glasses, where symbol shape and colour indicates average glass composition (Table 3.1), and open symbols indicate the presence of nanolites. Analytical conditions were: 15 kV accelerating voltage, 50 nA beam current, and (a) 10 and (b) 4 μm beam diameter. Data are available in Table D.3.

SiO₂ concentration

High-silica (61–78 wt% SiO₂) glasses remain broadly stable during electron beam irradiation (Figure 3.8), despite the Raman spectra of electron beam irradiated areas using a 4 μm beam diameter indicating the formation of magnetite nanolites (Figure 3.7c). This implies extremely rapid oxidation at 4 μm , which is consistent with the rate of alkali migration, and probably H, being faster during electron beam irradiation of high- compared to low-silica glasses (e.g., Figure 3.4; Hayward, 2011). This may be due to the more polymerised structure of high-silica glasses (Mysen et al., 1982).

Fe content

PSB glasses do not oxidise ($I'_0 \approx 0 \text{ s}^{-1}$, Figure 3.8), and there are no Fe-bearing nanolites observable in the Raman spectra prior to or following electron beam irradiation (Figure 3.7c), despite $\text{TMC} > 0.4 \text{ mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ due to their high alkali and water contents. These glasses contain little Fe ($\text{FeO}_\text{T} \leq 3.2 \text{ wt}\%$), which could hinder oxidation as FeO groups may need to lie close together in order to produce Fe_2O_3 .

Presence of nanolites

Surprisingly, low-silica (47–58 wt% SiO_2) glasses with $\text{TMC} > 0.35 \text{ mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$, which corresponds to $\text{H}_2\text{O} > 4 \text{ wt}\%$ (Figure 3.10), appear stable ($I'_0 \approx 0 \text{ s}^{-1}$). It is possible that they oxidised very quickly and the change is not observable. Analyses using a $10 \mu\text{m}$ beam size are also stable (Figure 3.8a), but there is evidence for the formation of haematite nanolites during electron beam irradiation (Figure 3.7c). This either means the oxidation is extremely rapid, due to the very high H_2O concentration, or not occurring due to the presence of magnetite nanolites before irradiation where the Fe may be stable, but further study is required to understand this process fully.

3.5.4. Effect of analytical conditions

For all X-rays measured ($\text{KK}\alpha$, $\text{FeK}\alpha$, and $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$), the rate of change of intensity increases with decreasing beam diameter and accelerating voltage, and increasing beam current (Figures 3.4–3.6 and 3.8, as is commonly observed during electron beam irradiation (e.g., Morgan and London, 2005)). The analytical conditions control the electron density implanted into the sample and therefore the magnitude of sub-surface charging. Increasing the beam current increases the electron dosage to the sample. The interaction volume is reduced by decreasing both the accelerating voltage and beam diameter, limiting the depth these electrons penetrate and the irradiated area respectively. Overall, the rate of intensity change increases with increasing implanted electron density (i.e., decreased interaction volume and/or increased electron dosage).

3.6. Quantifying Fe oxidation state: Time-dependent ratio flank method

3.6.1. Calibration and errors

Höfer and Brey (2007) found that the ratio of $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ correlated linearly with Fe^{2+} for garnets, with a small secondary dependence on Fe_T (Equation 3.1). Consequently, their coefficients (m and c) of $\text{Fe}^{2+} = m \cdot (\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}) + c$ were dependent on Fe_T . Our data showed no improvement to the correlation between $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ and Fe^{2+} by allowing the coefficients to depend on Fe_T , therefore m and c are fitted without Fe_T dependence using a weighted least squares regression (weighted using error on independently-constrained Fe^{2+}). The lack of dependence on Fe_T is likely because the composition of natural silicate glasses investigated here covers a much narrower range of Fe_T compared to garnets (<18 vs. $64 \text{ wt}\% \text{ FeO}_\text{T}$, respectively). The calibration curve is not constant between sessions (Figure 3.11 and Table 3.5), therefore a new calibration curve should be produced for each session.

It appears that low-silica and peralkaline glasses require different calibration curves (Figure 3.11e), therefore these two sample groups were fitted separately. Using these different calibration curves, $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ is replicated well for both compositions (Figures 3.12a and b). Fe coordination also effects the FeL lines but

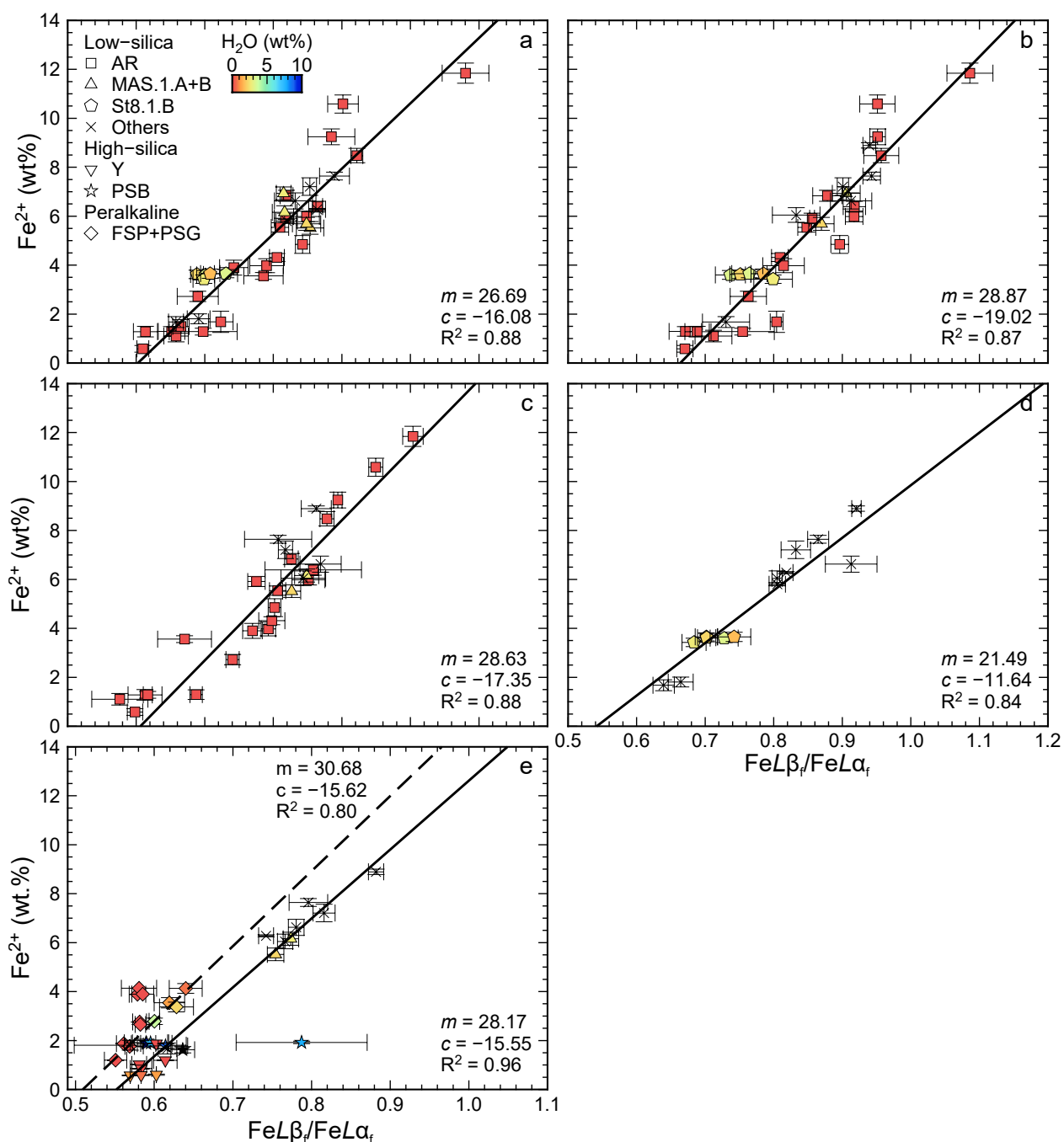


Figure 3.11: Calibration curves derived for each session, where Fe^{2+} is constrained using $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ from independent techniques and Fe_T from EPMA. Symbol shape indicates average glass composition (Table 3.1) and colour indicates H_2O concentration. Analytical conditions were: 15 kV accelerating voltage and 50 nA beam current. (a) Low-silica glasses using 10 μm beam diameter, (b)–(d) low-silica glasses using 4 μm beam diameter, and (e) all glasses with separate calibration curves for low-silica (solid) and peralkaline (dashed) glasses (high-silica glasses are shown but not included in the fit), using a 15 μm beam diameter. Data are available in Table D.3.

the coordination of silicate glasses is very similar (Cottrell et al., 2009). Instead, it may be that absorption within the glass of the FeL lines is different between these two broad compositional groups due to their different compositions, although this was not observed for garnets (Höfer and Brey, 2007). Compositional differences within the low-silica glasses may also explain the scatter observed in the calibration curves, but it is not possible to explore this fully using the current dataset. It may be that errors on $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ can be

Table 3.5: Results for weighted linear regression for Fe^{2+} calibration for each session.

No.	Beam diameter (μm)	n	m	c	Adj. R^2	R.S.E. (wt%)
1	10	38	26.87 ± 1.70	-16.08 ± 1.37	0.88	0.51
2	4	32	28.67 ± 2.05	-19.02 ± 1.77	0.87	0.55
3	4	27	28.63 ± 2.12	-17.35 ± 1.75	0.88	0.50
4	4	14	21.49 ± 2.72	-11.64 ± 2.16	0.84	0.36
5	15	10	28.17 ± 1.91	-15.55 ± 1.47	0.96	0.17
5 ^a	15	12	30.68 ± 8.50	-15.92 ± 5.29	0.80	0.11

Notes: Data were collected using analytical conditions of a 15 kV accelerating voltage and 50 nA beam current. n is the number of measurements included in the fit. m and c are the slope and intercept respectively for $\text{Fe}^{2+} = m \cdot (\text{Fe}L\beta_f/\text{Fe}L\alpha_f) + c$. Adj. R^2 is the adjusted R^2 . R.S.E. is the residual standard error on estimated Fe^{2+} . Fits are for low-silica and ^aperalkaline glasses.

reduced by using compositionally-matched glass standards. In practice such standards are unlikely to be available, therefore we recommend using standards with broadly similar compositions (i.e., low-silica or peralkaline) when using this technique.

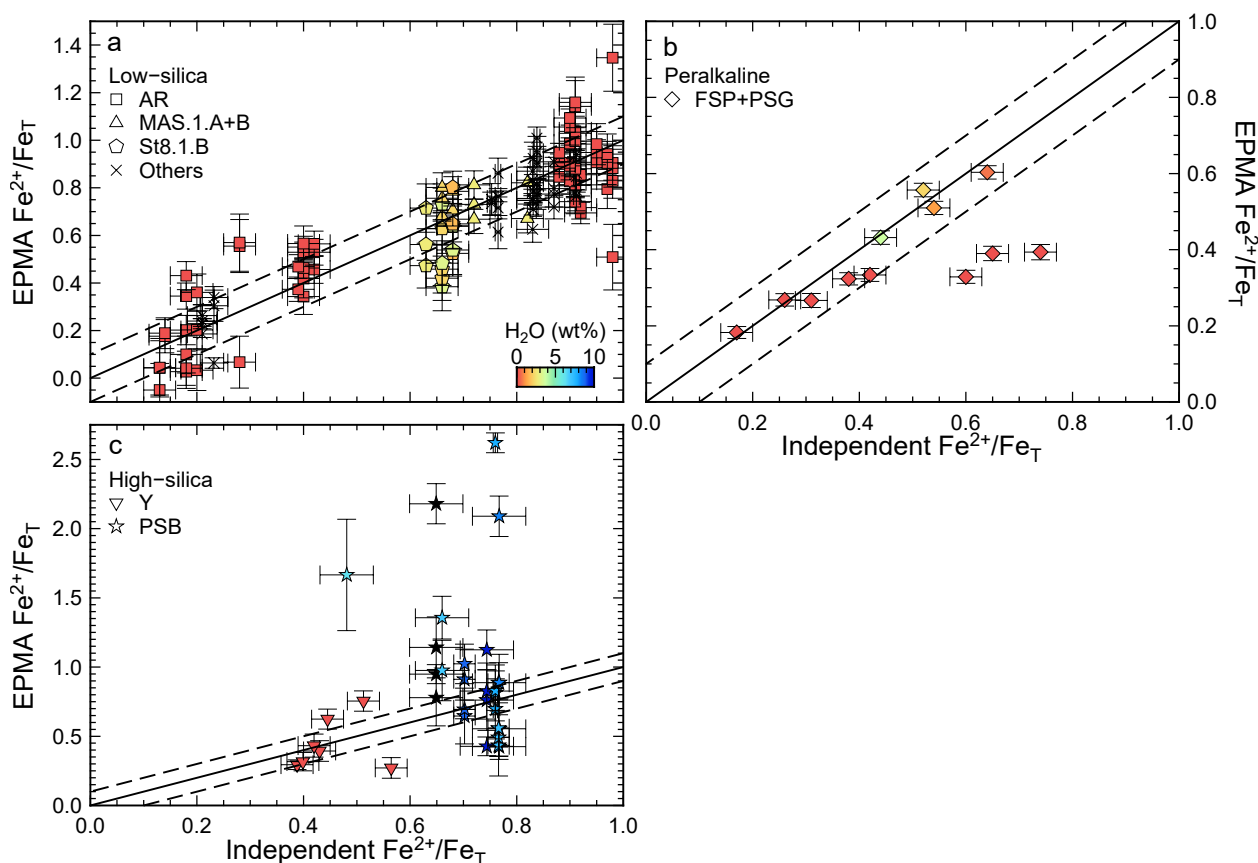


Figure 3.12: EPMA against independently constrained $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ collected during all sessions for (a) low-silica (43–56 wt% SiO_2), (b) peralkaline (FSP+PSG), and (c) high-silica (69–78 wt% SiO_2 , using low-silica glass derived calibration curves) glasses, where symbol shape indicates average glass composition (Table 3.1) and colour indicates H_2O concentration. Analytical conditions were: 15 kV accelerating voltage, 50 nA beam current, and 4–15 μm beam diameter. The solid line indicates the 1-to-1 relationship, whilst the dashed lines indicate ± 0.1 limits.

A calibration curve could not be created for high-silica glasses PSB and Y as they cover a narrow range of Fe^{2+} (<2 wt% Fe^{2+}). Their $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ are poorly replicated by the low-silica calibration curve (Figure

3.12c), to which they lie more closely than the peralkaline calibration curve (Figure 3.11e). This is likely due to their low Fe content ($\text{FeO}_\text{T} < 3.3$ wt%, except Y-L with 6.2 wt% FeO_T), therefore this technique is unsuitable for low Fe glasses (i.e., $\text{FeO}_\text{T} < 5$ wt%).

The $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ precision, using a residual standard error of 0.5 wt% on Fe^{2+} and 1 % relative error on FeO_T , depends on the Fe concentration and oxidation state:

$$\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T} \text{ error} = (\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T})_{\text{EPMA}} \cdot \sqrt{\left(\frac{0.5}{\text{Fe}^{2+}}\right)^2 + (0.01)^2} \quad (3.4)$$

e.g., ± 0.03 for 10 wt% FeO_T and 0.5 $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$. The average accuracy for low-silica (43–56 wt% SiO_2) and peralkaline (70–76 wt% SiO_2) glasses with 5–18 wt% FeO_T , and 0–4 wt% H_2O , when the appropriate analytical conditions and calibration curves are used, is ± 0.1 (Figures 3.12a and b).

3.6.2. Recommended analytical conditions

Analytical conditions can be optimised according to the nature of any given sample as different conditions (beam diameter and current, total count time of a single analysis, and number of analyses averaged) can be used on the standards and unknowns, so long as the accelerating voltage and flank positions remain the same. Höfer and Brey (2007) showed that for garnets the optimum accelerating voltage is 15 kV; at lower and higher accelerating voltages the sensitivity of the flank method is reduced. For glasses, the sensitivity of the flank method also decreased at higher accelerating voltages (Figures 3.3b and d). An accelerating voltage of 15 kV allows the composition of the sample to be analysed, via conventional EPMA, without further calibration or beam focussing.

The error on the corrected $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ is a function of counting statistics, the fit of an exponential function to the change in $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ with time (Equation 3.2), and the number of analyses averaged. Counting statistics can be improved by using a higher beam current, but this can cause the rate of change to occur too quickly to be observed. Decreasing the beam diameter will also increase the rate of change, as seen here for high-silica glasses, but improves spatial resolution. Therefore, it is important to know the approximate composition of the target glass (e.g., by EDS analysis) to understand how quickly the change in Fe oxidation is likely to occur. If redox changes occur too quickly, the time-corrected $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ will be wrong leading to erroneous $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ values. Our data at a 15 kV accelerating voltage, 50 nA beam current, 4 μm beam diameter, and averaging 10 analyses produced a relative error on the corrected $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}/\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ of ~ 3 %, and gave the flexibility to analyse a variety of glass morphologies for hydrous low-silica glasses. A larger beam size (10–15 μm diameter) is needed to analyse high-silica samples containing sufficient iron (i.e., peralkaline) due to the rapid rate of oxidation, which unfortunately sacrifices spatial resolution. This technique may not be appropriate if samples contain fine-scale heterogeneities (e.g., nanolites), as the Fe coordination in these phases may differ to that in the glass.

3.6.3. Further applications

The TDR flank method presented here could be applied to other beam-sensitive samples. Electron probe induced dehydrogenation has been observed for kaersutitic amphibole, resulting in the underestimation of $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ due to oxidation (Wagner et al., 2008). Wagner et al. (2008) showed the severity of damage

correlated with analytical conditions and H_2O concentration of the amphibole, in much the same way as shown here for silicate glass. Therefore, applying the TDR flank method to amphibole may provide robust Fe oxidation state estimates without sacrificing spatial resolution.

Oxidation and reduction of S has been observed during analysis of silicate glass and anhydrite when using the $\text{SK}\alpha$ peak shift to measure S oxidation state (Wallace and Carmichael, 1994; Rowe et al., 2007; Wilke et al., 2011). Sulphur oxidation in silicate glass appeared to follow an exponential trend and, as observed here, the estimate of redox state at time zero was found to agree with μXANES measurements of the same sample (Wilke et al., 2011). Sulphur redox changes are controlled by similar factors to Fe such as initial S oxidation state (Rowe et al., 2007) and H_2O concentration (Wilke et al., 2008). If a flank-type method was developed for S (Wilke et al., 2011), time-dependent measurements could also be applied, negating the need to move samples during analysis (Métrich and Clocchiatti, 1996; Rowe et al., 2007), thereby improving spatial resolution.

3.7. Implications

Measuring the Fe oxidation state of silicate melts allows estimation of oxygen fugacity prevailing during natural processes and in experiments. The time-dependent ratio flank method presented here combines the ability to measure the Fe oxidation state at high resolution with the utility of the electron probe. This will allow routine measurement of Fe oxidation state of melt inclusions and interstitial glass, previously hampered by the need for synchrotron access. Melt inclusions provide a unique insight into the pre-eruptive magma but studies have shown that the Fe oxidation state can be altered by degassing (e.g., Moussallam et al., 2014) and cooling (e.g., Hartley et al., 2017) post-entrapment, complicating their use as a proxy for oxygen fugacity. Hence, larger datasets generated due to easier access, will allow the importance of these processes to be further investigated, although for some applications smaller errors will be required. For instance, the difference between MORB (0.83–0.87 $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$), back arcs (0.81–0.85) and arcs (0.68–0.82) would be difficult to distinguish with the current errors of this technique (Kelley and Cottrell, 2009), although degassing induced changes maybe resolvable (e.g., 0.60–0.85 $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$, Moussallam et al., 2014). Also, a better understanding of the analytical and compositional controls on redox changes during electron beam irradiation of silicate glass (summarised in Figure 3.13) can aid our understanding of glass structure and improve analytical routines.

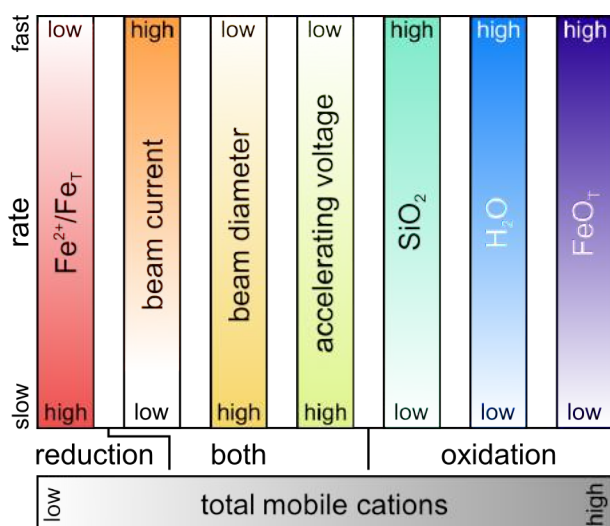


Figure 3.13: Schematic diagram showing the controls on the direction and rate of Fe redox changes in silicate glass during electron beam irradiation.

Chapter 4

High spatial resolution SIMS analysis of carbon stable isotopes in basaltic glass

Author contributions and declaration: E.C. Hughes made the experimental capsules with the help of R.A. Brooker. Glasses were experimentally synthesised by R. Balzer and D.A. Neave. R.A. Brooker collected SHC and S. Remmelzwall helped to clean the sample. G. Kilgour collected the Rangitoto olivine and J. Craven provided the San Carlos olivine. D. Hilton provided ALV981-R23 and C. Aubaud the CH9 samples. All data were collected by E.C. Hughes except: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the starting CaCO_3 (A. Nederbragt); $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the released gas from SHMS (P. Cartigny); TCEA data (I. Bindemann); and some of the SIMS data (J. Craven). E.C. Hughes processed and interpreted the data, and wrote the chapter, with the help of J.D. Blundy and H.M. Mader.

ABSTRACT

Analysing carbon isotope ratios in melt inclusions would greatly enhance our understanding of the pre-eruptive degassing process and the initial carbon budget of magmas. The standard method to measure the carbon isotope ratio of silicate glass uses the bulk technique of stepped-heating gas extraction in a vacuum line followed by mass spectrometry of the released gas due to the low concentration of carbon in silicate glasses, but a micro-analytical technique is required for melt inclusions. Here, secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) with negative ions is used to measure carbon stable isotopes at high spatial resolution. Care must be taken to ensure low levels of carbon background during SIMS analysis, which consists of surficial contamination and background carbon in the vacuum. Carbon concentration can be measured at the same time as carbon isotope ratios by measuring $^{18}\text{O}^-$ in combination with $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$. A precision of 5 ‰ on CO_2 concentrations > 400 ppm, or 2 ‰ for $\text{CO}_2 > 2000$ ppm, could be achieved using high beam currents (~ 50 nA), although this requires further investigation.

4.1. Introduction

The carbon isotope ratio of silicate melts provides a unique insight into the degassing histories of magmas because it is typically the first volatile to exsolve (e.g., Macpherson and Matthey, 1994; Pineau and Javoy, 1994, 1983). Particularly, analysing melt inclusions provides a potential avenue for reconstructing the initial carbon concentration of magmas, fingerprinting its source, and deciphering the style of degassing prior to eruption (Section 1.4). Analysing experimental glasses for carbon isotope ratios at high spatial resolution would reduce the amount of material needed to investigate the process of stable isotope fractionation. Also, measuring the isotopic effect of carbon diffusion through silicate melts (e.g., to understand kinetic fractionation during bubble growth, Watson, 2017) requires spatially resolved analysis. Unfortunately, carbon is difficult to analyse because of its low concentration in silicate glass (<5000 ppm CO_2). Additionally, its detection is adversely affected by carbon contamination such as adsorption onto the glass surface, carbon on the sample surface, and carbon inherently present in the vacuum of analytical equipment (termed the ‘blank’).

Currently, carbon isotope ratios in silicate glass are analysed in bulk samples, using stepped-heating mass spectrometry (SHMS) (e.g., Macpherson et al., 1999). This technique separates out different types of carbon present in silicate glass by sequentially heating the sample to higher temperatures in a vacuum line (e.g., Swart et al., 1983; Matthey et al., 1989, 1984). Silicate glass readily absorbs CO_2 onto its surface, which is released from the glass at low temperature (<600 °C) (Des Marais, 1986; Matthey et al., 1984; Exley et al., 1986). On the other hand, the structurally bound oxidised carbon is released at high temperature (>1000 °C). Additionally, natural samples release CO_2 trapped in vesicles at intermediate temperatures (600–1000 °C) (e.g., Matthey et al., 1984). If carbon is present as a reduced species (i.e., graphite) it will be released at even higher temperatures (>1200 °C) (Matthey et al., 1989). There is also carbon present in the vacuum line and sufficient material must be measured to ensure the blank is a small proportion of the carbon analysed. This technique is not appropriate for melt inclusions because $\sim 10^2$ – 10^3 mg of material are required (depending on the instrumental blank and the concentration of CO_2 in the glass), which is far greater than the mass of material in melt inclusions ($\sim 10^{-8}$ mg). Spectroscopic techniques (e.g., Raman and FTIR) could also be used to analyse carbon isotopes as the molecular frequencies shift depending on the isotopic ratio of the sample (e.g., Urey, 1947). Raman spectroscopy has been used in this way (Mysen, 2017, 2016), but typically the carbon concentration is too low in silicate glass to observe the carbonate ion peak (Morizet et al., 2013).

Secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) is often used to measure the carbon concentration of silicate glass at high spatial resolution, such as in melt inclusions (e.g., Blundy and Cashman, 2008). A primary ion beam sputters material from the surface of the sample, which generates secondary ions (e.g., Hinton, 1995). The concentration of these secondary ions is measured based on their mass-charge ratio, therefore isotope ratios can be analysed. The high vacuum analytical chamber leads to low backgrounds for elements such as carbon. Additionally, SIMS pre-sputters material prior to analysis, which removes the surface layer of the sample, hence SIMS can analyse elements which otherwise suffer from high levels of surface contamination, such as carbon (Blundy and Cashman, 2008; Hauri et al., 2002; Hauri, 2002). Although samples are often mounted in epoxy for grinding and polishing, epoxy outgasses carbon into the analysis chamber which elevates the blank, hence samples are mounted in indium. The sample composition effects the sputtering processes, which is not well understood and therefore cannot be corrected for (unlike with EPMA, Section 2.2) when quantifying SIMS data. Additionally, there are instrumental mass fractionation

effects which change the measured isotope ratio from the true isotope ratio (e.g., Hauri et al., 2002). Hence, matrix-matched standards are required for accurate quantification.

Hauri (2002) and Hauri et al. (2002) reported the first carbon isotope ratio measurements of silicate glass, including melt inclusions, using SIMS. There have been no published results since, except a conference abstract by Le Voyer et al. (2014). Hauri et al. (2002) used two basaltic (Hauri et al., 2002; Macpherson et al., 1999) and four andesitic (King, unpublished) glass standards. The basaltic glass ALV981-R23 was used, which is a natural submarine glass with 406 ± 8 ppm CO_2 and -5.70 ± 0.41 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (see Section A.1 for notation). Additionally, SAV-C-1 was synthesised at 10 kbar and 1400 °C to produce an undersaturated glass with 7000 ppm CO_2 (measured using SIMS) and -8.0 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ based on the isotope ratio of the Iceland spar calcite used in the starting powder. The andesite glasses were synthetic and contained 270–1300 ppm CO_2 , 1.09–3.70 wt% H_2O and -27.0 to -29.0 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. For quantification, a matrix effect was found between the basalts and andesites, but no effect of H_2O concentration on the measured carbon isotope ratio in the andesites was observed. Contamination arose from the intersection of the sputter crater with surface contamination, which continuously created carbon ions. Hauri (2002) reported extremely light carbon isotope ratios (-30 to -10 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) for melt inclusions from Koolau, Hawaii. Le Voyer et al. (2014) analysed a range of glass standards (100–7000 ppm CO_2 , -21.9 to -5.7 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and achieved 1.0–1.5 ‰ analytical error and 2–3 ‰ reproducibility on low carbon glasses (100–400 ppm CO_2). Again, surface contamination caused some instability in their analyses.

The aim of this Chapter is to develop a technique for analysing the carbon isotope ratio of melt inclusions from arc volcanoes, using Etna as case study (Chapter 6). The technique will also be applied to experimental glasses created to quantify the carbon isotope fractionation factor (Chapter 5), which is required to interpret the melt inclusion data. The key difference between these samples and those analysed in previous studies using SIMS (Hauri, 2002; Hauri et al., 2002; Le Voyer et al., 2014) is the basaltic glass is hydrous. Previous studies did not have hydrous basaltic glass standards, hence the matrix effect of H_2O concentration on SIMS analysis in basaltic glass was not tested. Also, carbon concentrations were not quantified at the same time as the carbon isotope ratio. This would greatly help when analysing melt inclusions, where space is limited, as a single SIMS analysis could deliver both the carbon concentration and isotope ratio.

This chapter is split into two sections. Section 4.2 describes experimentally synthesising and characterising the composition of new hydrous basaltic glass standards, particularly measuring their carbon isotope ratio independently using stepped-heating mass spectrometry. Section 4.3 develops an analytical protocol using SIMS to measure the carbon concentration and isotope ratio contemporaneously of hydrous basaltic glass at high spatial resolution. Different analytical routines for measuring the carbon concentration and isotope ratio of basaltic glass are investigated. The spatial resolution is measured using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and scanning ion microscopy (SIM). The effect of contamination and composition on calibrating carbon concentrations and isotope ratios, using the standards described in Section 4.2, are also considered.

4.2. Synthesising and characterising carbon isotope basaltic glass standards

SIMS is a standards-based technique, where the measured secondary ion yield on unknown samples is compared to standards for quantification. The composition of the sample has a major effect on the secondary ion yield, hence matrix-matched standards are required for accurate quantification. Currently, there are no hydrous basaltic glasses with independently constrained carbon isotope ratios available, hence

we synthesised (Section 4.2.1) and characterised (Sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3) our own (results in Section 4.2.4).

4.2.1. Experimental synthesis

Seven experimental glasses were synthesised to produce basaltic glass standards for carbon isotope analysis using two different starting compositions (A: ETNA24, and B: ETNA31–ETNA36, Table 4.1). Albite, anorthite, sanidine, fayalite, wollastonite, SiO_2 , MnO , MgO , TiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 , and $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ powders were mechanically mixed by grinding under water in an agate mortar. Mixes were initially dried under a heat lamp for 30 mins. B glasses were additionally glassed at 1 atm in air in a Pt-crucible at 1300 °C for one hour in the GEROTM vertical furnace at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, UK. To avoid oxidation during glassing, fayalite and Fe_2O_3 were added after this step for B glasses. Starting compositions are detailed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Starting compositions, capsule sizes, and experimental details.

	ETNA24	ETNA31	ETNA32	ETNA33	ETNA34	ETNA35	ETNA36
Composition	A	B	B	B	B	B	B
Pressure (kbar)	5	7	7	3	5	5	3
Temperature (°C)	1250	1250	1250	1250	1250	1250	1250
Capsule length (mm)	~30	~15	~15	~15	~15	~15	~15
Synthesis time (h)	~18	~36	~36	~18	~18	~18	~18
IHPV	Blue	Blue	Blue	Blue	Yellow	Yellow	Blue
SiO_2	46.96	46.16	46.13	46.15	46.15	45.23	45.00
TiO_2	1.71	1.75	1.75	1.75	1.75	1.72	1.71
Al_2O_3	15.93	14.80	14.79	14.80	14.80	14.50	14.43
Fe_2O_3	5.65	5.76	5.76	5.76	5.76	5.64	5.62
FeO	5.10	5.19	5.19	5.19	5.19	5.08	5.06
MnO	0.19	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20
MgO	5.80	5.91	5.91	5.91	5.91	5.79	5.76
CaO	10.52	13.80	13.83	13.81	13.81	13.53	13.47
Na_2O	3.36	3.42	3.42	3.42	3.42	3.36	3.34
K_2O	1.90	1.94	1.94	1.94	1.94	1.90	1.89
P_2O_5	0.57	0.58	0.58	0.58	0.58	0.57	0.57
H_2O	2.00	0	0	0	0	2.00	2.49
CO_2 (ppm)	2972	4836	5129	4946	4946	4847	4823
$\delta^{13}\text{C}^a$ (‰)	-1.81	+1.99	-5.43	-1.81	-1.81	-1.81	-1.81
$\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50

Notes: Oxides are in wt%, except where otherwise stated, and are calculated from the weighed-in components. ^a measured on the starting CaCO_3 (Table 4.2). Errors of one standard deviation on oxide concentrations are <0.02 wt%, except for H_2O in ETNA35 and ETNA36 (0.03 and 0.04 wt%, respectively) and CO_2 (43 ppm for ETNA24, 147 ppm for ETNA31–ETNA32, and 37 ppm for ETNA33–ETNA36).

The mixture was dried overnight (~100 °C) before CaCO_3 was added. To give variable carbon compositions, different quantities of CaCO_3 were added as either powdered Seaford Head Chalk (SHC), Oka carbonatite calcite (OKA) or a 50:50 mechanical mixture of the two (MIX). SHC was collected from Hope Gap on the Sussex coast by R. Brooker, where the Turonian to Campanian Chalk is known for its high $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (+1.5 to +2.5 ‰, Jenkyns et al., 1994). Organic matter was removed from SHC using the method of Barker et al. (2003). Calcite grains were picked from the Oka carbonatite, which has more negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-5 ‰; Deines, 1970). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the different types of CaCO_3 were measured using the Thermo MAT253 at the School of Earth and Ocean Sciences, Cardiff University, UK, by A. Nederbragt (Table 4.2). The mixture was dried overnight (~100 °C) before water was added as H_2O dispersed throughout the

capsule.

Table 4.2: Carbon and oxygen isotope ratios for CaCO_3 .

CaCO_3	Seaford Head Chalk (SHC)	Oka carbonatite calcite (OKA)	50:50 SHC:OKA (MIX)
n	2	2	4
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$+1.99 \pm 0.03$	-5.43 ± 0.02	-1.81 ± 0.02
$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰)	-2.71 ± 0.07	-23.58 ± 0.01	-13.21 ± 0.09
<i>Notes: n is the number of analyses and errors are one standard deviation.</i>			

Large capsules, 5 mm in diameter and 15–30 mm in length (Table 4.1) made of $\text{Au}_{75}\text{Pd}_{25}$, were loaded with starting powders to produce sufficient material for bulk analysis. ETNA24 was ~ 30 mm in length with ~ 500 mg of starting powder and was triple welded shut at each end. ETNA31–ETNA36 were ~ 15 mm in length with ~ 300 mg of starting powder and were ‘trash can’ welded shut at each end, allowing two to be experimentally synthesised at the same time. Capsules were immersed in water at $\sim 50^\circ\text{C}$, then put in a $\sim 100^\circ\text{C}$ oven for ~ 10 mins, to check for leaks.

Experiments were run in an internally heated pressure vessel (IHPV) at 1250°C and 3, 5 or 7 kbar (Table 4.1) using Ar gas as the pressurising medium at the Institut für Mineralogie, Leibniz Universität Hannover, Germany, by R. Balzer and D. Neave. All glasses were run for ~ 18 hours, except ETNA31–ETNA32 which were run for ~ 36 hours in total. ETNA31–ETNA32 failed to quench the first time and were therefore re-run under the same conditions. ETNA24, ETNA31, ETNA33, and ETNA36 were run in the ‘Blue’ IHPV, whilst ETNA34 and ETNA35 were run in the ‘Yellow’ IHPV (Blue and Yellow refer to two different IHPVs available at Hannover). The sample holder is equipped with four S-type thermocouples: two are used to control the furnace temperature and two are used to record the sample temperature. Temperature varied by $< 5^\circ\text{C}$ during experiments and pressure variations were limited to ± 0.02 kbar. Samples were quenched using a rapid-quench device at $\sim 150^\circ\text{C} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Berndt et al., 2002).

After each experiment, the capsules were weighed and visually inspected to check for any leaks during the run (Figure 4.1). ETNA24, ETNA32, ETNA33, and ETNA36 did not gain or lose weight outside weighing error during the run and had convex shapes. ETNA31 had a concave shape and gained significant weight. ETNA34 and ETNA35 leaked a small amount of glass, which was presumed to have occurred on the quench as it was still attached to the capsule after the experiment. Capsules were opened under a binocular microscope and glass chips were selected for further analysis. All run products were dark brown and glassy, except for the glass found on the outside of capsules for ETNA34 and ETNA35 which had variation in the glass colour (Figure 4.2). There was no evidence for crystals or microlites in the glass, and no magnetite nanolites were detected using Raman spectroscopy (method is described in Section 6.3.2; results and discussion in Appendix F).

4.2.2. Characterising the composition

Independently quantifying the carbon isotope ratio using stepped-heating mass spectrometry (SHMS) is key to producing the hydrous basaltic glass standards. To determine the quantity of glass required for SHMS requires knowledge of the carbon concentration dissolved in the glass. Hence, the carbon (and hydrogen) concentration was initially measured using Fourier transform infra-red (FTIR) spectroscopy,



Figure 4.1: Photographs of the capsules post-synthesis. Sample is labelled in the top left corner of each image. For ETNA34 and ETNA35 the top of the capsule is also shown, where glass can be seen on the outside of the capsule.

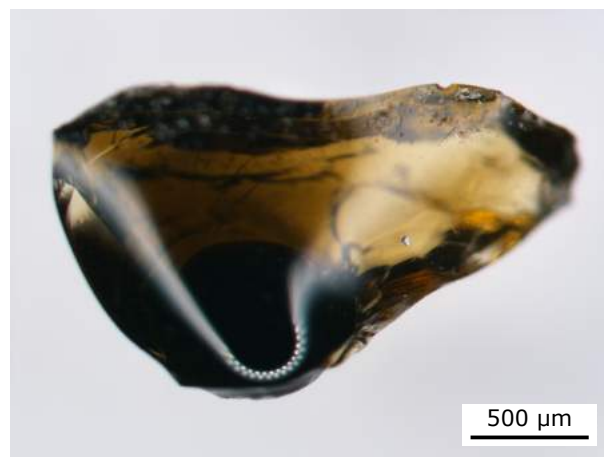


Figure 4.2: Photograph of the piece of glass found on the outside of the capsule for ETNA35. The glass varies in colour from dark brown, which was the area still connected to the inside of the capsule, to light brown, implying a significant compositional gradient.

which additionally gave information about the volatile speciation. FTIR requires accurate knowledge of the glass density, which is dependent upon the H_2O concentration, hence hydrogen concentrations were measured using the bulk technique of thermal conversion element analyser (TCEA, as described in Section 5.2.6 which includes a discussion of the effects of contamination). TCEA was also used to measure δD , which are not discussed here, but are used for SIMS hydrogen isotope calibration in Section 6.3.3. SIMS was subsequently used to check the homogeneity of the carbon and hydrogen concentrations. The major and minor element chemistry can also have a matrix effect on SIMS analysis, hence these were analysed using EPMA to check the glass composition was appropriate for the samples of interest (i.e., experimental

glasses in Chapter 5 and arc melt inclusions). This is described in Section 2.5.3, using the set-up in Table 5.5 for ETNA24 and Table 4.3 for ETNA31–ETNA36. Additionally, the Fe oxidation state was analysed using EPMA, as described in Section 3.3.2, and fluid compositions were analysed using weight loss due to freezing/boiling, as described in Section 5.2.5. An overview of the techniques is given in Table 4.4.

Table 4.3: EPMA set-up for glass composition of ETNA31–ETNA36.

Spectrometer – Crystal				
1 – PETJ	2 – TAP	3 – TAPH	4 – PETH	5 – LIFL
$\text{CaK}\alpha^a$ (60)	$\text{SiK}\alpha^a$ (60)	$\text{NaK}\alpha^a$ (60)	$\text{KK}\alpha^a$ (120)	$\text{FeK}\alpha^a$ (60)
<i>Wollastonite</i>	<i>BCR-2</i>	<i>Albite</i>	<i>Sanidine</i>	<i>Andradite</i>
BCR-2		BCR-2		BCR-2
$\text{TiK}\alpha$ (60)	$\text{AlK}\alpha$ (60)	$\text{MgK}\alpha$ (60)	$\text{PK}\alpha$ (60)	$\text{MnK}\alpha$ (60)
<i>TiO₂</i>	<i>BCR-2</i>	<i>SJIO</i>	<i>Durango apatite</i>	<i>Mn metal</i>
		BCR-2		
$\text{ClK}\alpha$ (60)			$\text{SK}\alpha$ (60)	
<i>NaCl</i>			VG-2	
			Barite	

Notes: Elements in order of analysis from top to bottom; peak count times (s) in brackets; and primary standards for peaking are under each element followed by the standard for calibration in *italics* if different, where BCR-2 is the USGS basaltic glass standard Columbia River Basalt, SJIO is St Johns Island Olivine, and VG-2 the Smithsonian Microbeam Juan de Fuca basaltic glass standard. Mean atomic number (MAN) backgrounds were used and ^a indicates TDI data collected to extrapolate to time zero in case of element migration. For each experimental glass, three analyses on fresh areas of glass were averaged. Composition of standards are in Tables 2.3 and 2.4.

Table 4.4: Overview of techniques applied to experimental glasses and fluids.

Technique	Phase	Variable
FTIR	Glass	CO_2 and H_2O (Section 4.2.2)
TCEA	Glass	H_2O (and δD) (Section 5.2.6)
SIMS	Glass	CO_2 and H_2O (Section 4.2.2)
SHMS	Glass	CO_2 and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Section 4.2.2)
EPMA	Glass	Majors and minors (Section 2.5.3) $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ (Section 3.3.2)
Weighing	Fluid	CO_2 and H_2O (Section 5.2.5)

Fourier transform infra-red spectroscopy

FTIR spectroscopy was used to measure the concentration of carbon and hydrogen dissolved in the glass (e.g., Fine and Stolper, 1986; Stolper, 1982), to inform the amount of material required for SHMS. Additionally, FTIR gives information about the speciation of carbon and hydrogen in the glass. Different chemical bonds absorb light of different wavelengths, which can be used to identify different chemical species present in a material. FTIR spectroscopy measures the absorption of infra-red light by the sample. As an absorption technique, the material must be transparent to light and thin enough that some of the light passes through the sample unabsorbed. The amount of absorption for a specific absorption band is dependent on the concentration of the species, the absorption coefficient, and thickness and density of the sample. The Beer-Lambert approximation can be used to quantify the concentration of each species:

$$C_i = \frac{100 \cdot M_i \cdot A_j}{d \cdot \rho \cdot \epsilon_j} \quad (4.1)$$

where C_i is the concentration of species i (wt%) with molecular mass M_i (g); A_j is the peak height of absorbance band j with absorption coefficient ϵ_j ($\text{L} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$); and d is the thickness (cm) and ρ is the density ($\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) of the sample. The absorption coefficient must be determined for each absorption band and is composition dependent, for instance varying with the bulk composition (e.g., Ohlhorst et al., 2001) and H_2O speciation (McIntosh et al., 2017). The approximation only holds if $A_j < 2$, hence samples must be thin enough to prevent excessive absorption.

FTIR spectra were collected using the Thermo Nicolet iN10 MX infrared microscope equipped with a MCT/A detector and a coated KBr beam splitter at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, UK. Glass chips were double-polished and their thickness (d) measured using Mitutoyo digital micrometer. Four to eight spectra per glass were collected between $675\text{--}6000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ at a resolution of 8 cm^{-1} , with an aperture of $100 \times 100\text{ }\mu\text{m}^2$, and 64 scans.

To measure the peak height, a background correction was performed. A thickness-adjusted spectrum (by linearly scaling the spectrum to match the unknown spectrum) collected on a volatile-free basaltic glass was subtracted from each spectrum as the background is often non-linear (Figure 4.3). The peak height (A_j) was the maximum height of the background corrected spectrum in the wavelength region of each species.

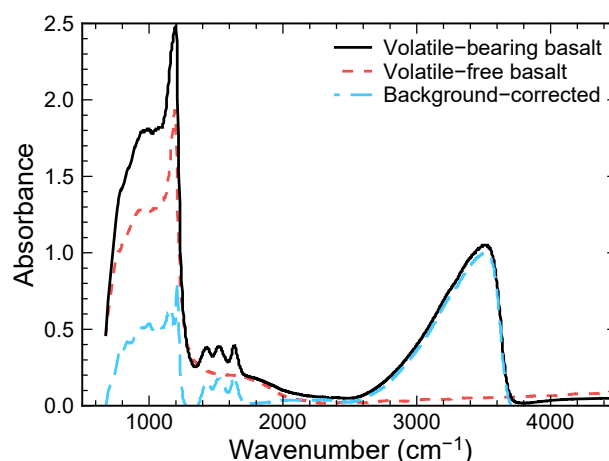


Figure 4.3: Example background correction for FTIR spectra. The black, solid curve is a basaltic glass spectrum containing dissolved carbon and hydrogen species. The red, short-dashed curve is a thickness-adjusted (i.e., scaled to fit the black solid curve) spectrum of a basaltic glass that is volatile-free. The blue, long-dashed curve is the background-corrected spectrum (i.e., black – red).

Glass density (ρ) was calculated using the equation of Yamashita et al. (1997) for basaltic glass:

$$\rho = 2819 - 20.8 \cdot C_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \quad (4.2)$$

where $C_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ is the concentration in wt% using TCEA measurements (Table 4.10).

Carbon concentration was quantified using the CO_3^{2-} peak at $\sim 1430\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ($\epsilon_{1430} = 360\text{ L} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$, Shishkina et al., 2014) as the $\sim 1515\text{ cm}^{-1}$ can be affected by the $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{mol}}$ peak at $\sim 1630\text{ cm}^{-1}$. Hydrogen concentration was determined using the $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{T}}$ peak at $\sim 3550\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ($\epsilon_{3550} = 59.2\text{ L} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$, Shishkina et al., 2014), except for ETNA36 where $A_{3550} > 2$. For ETNA36, the hydrogen concentration was calculated as the sum of hydroxyl using the OH^- peak at $\sim 4500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and molecular water using the $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{mol}}$ peak at $\sim 5200\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ($\epsilon_{4500} = 0.67\text{ L} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and $\epsilon_{5200} = 0.62\text{ L} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$, Dixon et al., 1995). These absorption coefficients were chosen as they were determined for similar glass compositions, especially MgO

concentration which has been shown to have a significant effect on calibration (Fiege et al., 2015). The error on the concentration was determined from the standard deviation on repeat measurements.

Stepped-heating mass spectrometry

SHMS was used to independently measure the carbon isotope ratios of the hydrous basaltic glass standards. Glass adsorbs CO_2 onto its surface, which changes the bulk carbon composition, and does not represent the carbon dissolved in the glass (e.g., Des Marais, 1986). This carbon is not analysed using micro-analytical techniques such as Raman, FTIR, or SIMS, because it is not structurally-bound in the glass. Separation of the adsorbed and dissolved carbon is achieved using stepped-heating gas extraction, whereby a sample is sequentially heated to higher temperature in a vacuum line. This releases the carbon, amongst other volatiles, which can be collected and analysed for concentration and isotope ratio. The exact temperature that these types of carbon is released depends on the glass composition, especially the H_2O concentration. As previous studies have analysed mostly anhydrous, submarine basalts, the temperature the adsorbed and dissolved carbon is released at may be different in these hydrous basaltic glasses.

Stepped-heating extraction of carbon was performed using a vacuum line at the Laboratoire de Géochimie des Isotopes Stables, Institut de Physique du Globe de Paris, France (Figure 4.4). FTIR CO_2 concentrations were used to inform the amount of sample to prepare (Table 4.10). Glasses were crushed and sieved, and chips between 240–460 μm were used for subsequent analysis. Prior to analysis, glass chips were washed in a 50:50 mixture of dichloro-methane and -methanol in an ultrasonic bath before being dried in an oven at $\sim 100^\circ\text{C}$ overnight.

Glass chips were weighed and then transferred into a ball-and-cup holder suspended within the vacuum line (Figure 4.4). Carbon is present in the vacuum line (the ‘blank’) and its concentration and isotope ratio must be quantified to correct the measurements. The protocol for running blanks (i.e., no sample in the Pt-crucible) and samples (i.e., glass in the Pt-crucible) is the same. The Pt-crucible is heated via induction, where the power of the generator has been calibrated for a given temperature (Figure 4.5). The Pt-crucible is heated for 30 mins, whilst the CuO furnace is heated to 850°C in a sealed section of the vacuum line containing the Pt-crucible. This releases oxygen into this section of the vacuum line to oxidise any volatiles released. During this time, condensable gases such as CO_2 and H_2O are collected in liquid N_2 trap (1) at -190°C , although any gases present that are a liquid at -190°C will also be collected. The induction coil heating the Pt-crucible coil is switched off, cooling the Pt-crucible, and the CuO furnace is cooled to 250°C to absorb any remaining free oxygen present for 30 mins. After this, any incondensable gases present in the sealed section of vacuum line are removed by opening the valve to the rest of the vacuum line, drawing any remaining CO_2 into liquid N_2 trap (1). The area of the vacuum line containing the condensed gases and the barometer is isolated, and liquid N_2 trap (1) is heated to -140°C . This releases CO_2 , which is transferred to liquid N_2 trap (2) for measuring. Liquid N_2 trap (2) is isolated and liquid N_2 trap (1) is heated to 40°C to release H_2O , which is removed by the vacuum. The pressure of the CO_2 is measured using a calibrated barometer as a voltage in a known volume by heating the CO_2 in liquid N_2 trap (2) to room temperature. The calibration (P. Cartigny, pers. comm. 2017) to covert the voltage (V) to moles of carbon (n) is:

$$n = 1.076 \cdot V \quad (4.3)$$

The CO_2 is then transferred to a sample vial in liquid N_2 trap (3) for isotope measurement.

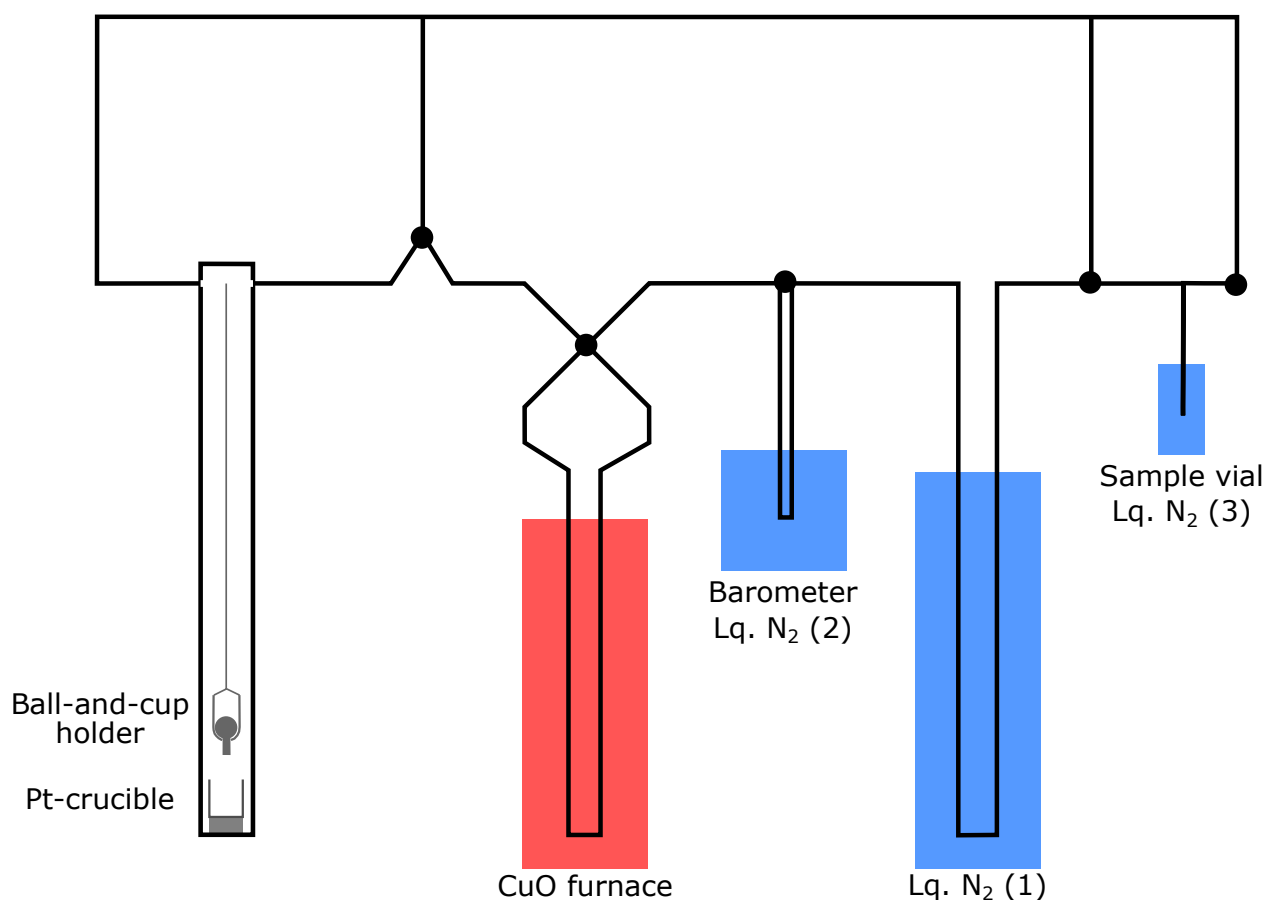


Figure 4.4: Schematic of the stepped-heating gas extraction vacuum line at Laboratoire de G ochimie des Isotopes Stables, Institut de Physique du Globe de Paris, France, showing the location of the ball-and-cup holder for loading the sample into the Pt-crucible, CuO furnace (red), and liquid nitrogen traps (blue) associated with (1) collecting all condensable gasses (e.g., H_2O and CO_2), (2) barometer for measuring CO_2 pressure and hence concentration, and (3) sample vial for isotope ratio analysis.

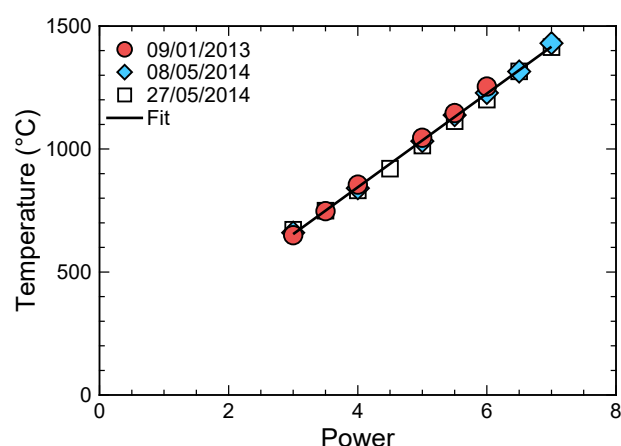


Figure 4.5: Calibration curve used to convert generator power to heating temperature in the Pt-crucible. Best fit is to all the data. Data from P. Cartigny (pers. comm., 2018).

After a new sample was introduced into the vacuum line, blank analyses were at $\sim 1400^\circ\text{C}$ until the carbon concentration was typically $\leq 0.1 \mu\text{mol carbon}$. The carbon released during the last blank, before the actual glass was analysed, was collected for carbon isotope analysis. The sample was introduced into the Pt-crucible by lowering the ball-and-cup holder, which meant the vacuum was not broken between blank and glass analysis. The glass was heated incrementally to higher temperatures to release the volatiles in stages.

The exact temperature steps chosen to release carbon varied between glasses. Typically, the glass was heated in steps of 50–100 °C from ~500 °C until a near blank value was reached, which indicated all the low temperature, adsorbed CO_2 had been released. After this, the sample was heated in one step to ~1200 °C to release all dissolved carbon. A single heating step was used to release a greater amount of carbon which reduces the proportion of carbon from the blank. The sample was then heated in 100 °C steps to ~1400 °C to ensure all carbon had been released. In some cases, a temperature step was repeated multiple times to ensure all carbon was released.

The carbon isotope ratio of the gas extracted at each temperature step, and the blanks, was measured using the Thermo DELTA plus XP at the Laboratoire de Géochimie des Isotopes Stables, Institut de Physique du Globe de Paris, France, by P. Cartigny. ^{12}C and ^{13}C are measured and the ratio is continuously measured relative to a gas of known isotope ratio to account for instrumental mass fractionation. A minimum flow rate of CO_2 through the instrument is required for accurate carbon isotope measurements, hence the CO_2 pressure in the sample vial must be high enough for this. Samples containing little CO_2 (i.e., few moles of CO_2) were cooled in liquid N_2 to occupy a smaller volume, which increases their pressure and therefore their flow rate.

Secondary ion mass spectrometry

To measure the concentration of carbon and hydrogen, and check the volatile homogeneity, glass chips were mounted in epoxy, then ground and polished to a ~1–3 μm finish. Glass chips were then extracted from the resin and remounted in indium before gold coating (~40–80 nm thickness). Measurements were made on the Cameca IMS-4f at the Edinburgh Ion Microprobe Facility, School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, UK. The analytical target was pre-sputtered over a $20 \times 20 \mu\text{m}^2$ area for 3–4 mins to reduce surface contamination. An O^- beam at 15 kV and 5 nA was used to produce positive ions over a $60 \mu\text{m}^2$ imaging field which was reduced to ~20 μm^2 using apertures. First, carbon was measured as $^{12}\text{C}^+$, where secondary ions were extracted at 4.5 kV with a 50 kV offset and 40 eV window. Mass resolution was sufficient to remove the overlap of $^{24}\text{Mg}^{2+}$ on $^{12}\text{C}^+$. For each measurement 15 cycles were collected. The first few cycles can be contaminated with surficial carbon, which causes the $^{12}\text{C}^+$ counts to drop sharply after the first 1–2 cycles and then remain constant. Hence, typically only the final eight cycles were used. Subsequently, hydrogen as $^1\text{H}^+$ was measured in the same pit as carbon and a rastering $25 \mu\text{m}^2$ image field was used during peak searching. Secondary ions were extracted at 4.5 kV with a 75 kV offset and 40 eV window. Eight to ten cycles were collected for each measurement but, due to potential surficial hydrogen contamination as for carbon, typically only the last six were used. For both carbon and hydrogen, $^{30}\text{Si}^+$ was also measured to normalise for any instrumental changes during the analysis (e.g., beam current), due to its high abundance and homogeneous distribution. Species, count times, and wait times are detailed in Tables 4.5 and 4.6 for carbon and hydrogen, respectively. Less cycles and shorter count times are required for hydrogen analysis because it has a higher abundance than carbon. Glasses were analysed 3–7 times (except ETNA24 that was analysed 22 times on three different chips) during different analytical sessions (Aug-16 for ETNA24, and Jun-18 (1) and (2) for ETNA31–ETNA36, Figure 4.6).

Basaltic glass standards with known carbon and hydrogen concentration (Table 4.7) were measured throughout the session to check for drift and for calibration. St glasses are from Shishkina et al. (2010), where H_2O is measured using Karl-Fischer titration and CO_2 is measured using a bulk technique based

Table 4.5: Species analysed for carbon concentration analysis, including count and wait times.

Species	$^{24}\text{Mg}^{2+}$	$^{12}\text{C}^+$	$^{40}\text{Ca}^+$	$^{30}\text{Si}^+$
Count time (s)	5	10	2	2
Wait time (s)	1	0.2	1	1

Table 4.6: Species analysed for hydrogen concentration analysis, including count and wait times.

Species	$^1\text{H}^+$	$^7\text{Li}^+$	$^{19}\text{F}^+$	$^{23}\text{Na}^+$	$^{26}\text{Mg}^+$	$^{30}\text{Si}^+$	$^{35}\text{Cl}^+$	$^{39}\text{K}^+$	$^{42}\text{Ca}^+$	$^{47}\text{Ti}^+$
Count time (s)	1	4	4	4	4	2	5	2	2	2
Wait time (s)	1.5	1	0.5	1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2

Notes: Species in italics were only measured during the Jun-18 (2) session.

on single step pyrolysis (see Section 5.2.3). Such bulk carbon methods normally suffer from carbon contamination (e.g., Section 4.1) but analysis of a carbon-free glass (the air-melted starting glass) measured $8.2 \pm 1.4 \mu\text{m C}$, where the blank was $5.1 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{m C}$ (Shishkina et al., 2010). The H_2O and CO_2 concentration of s glasses and 17-2 was measured using FTIR by Pichavant et al. (2009, 2013). Carbon and hydrogen measured using SIMS were quantified as CO_2 and H_2O , respectively. After applying a background correction (based on analyses of BIR-1, Table 4.7), counts were divided by $^{30}\text{Si}^+$ and working curves for each analytical session were constructed (Blundy and Cashman, 2008):

$$\text{CO}_2 \propto \frac{^{12}\text{C}^+ - ^{12}\text{C}_{\text{bkg}}^+}{^{30}\text{Si}^+} \quad (4.4)$$

$$\text{H}_2\text{O} \propto \frac{^1\text{H}^+ - ^1\text{H}_{\text{bkg}}^+}{^{30}\text{Si}^+} \quad (4.5)$$

CO_2 concentrations were multiplied by $(\text{SiO}_2, \text{wt\%})/50$, using EPMA SiO_2 concentrations (Table 4.10), to account for differences in the silica content between standards and unknowns. The SiO_2 correction is not necessary for quantifying H_2O as $^1\text{H}^+$ ion yield correlates with SiO_2 (Blundy and Cashman, 2008).

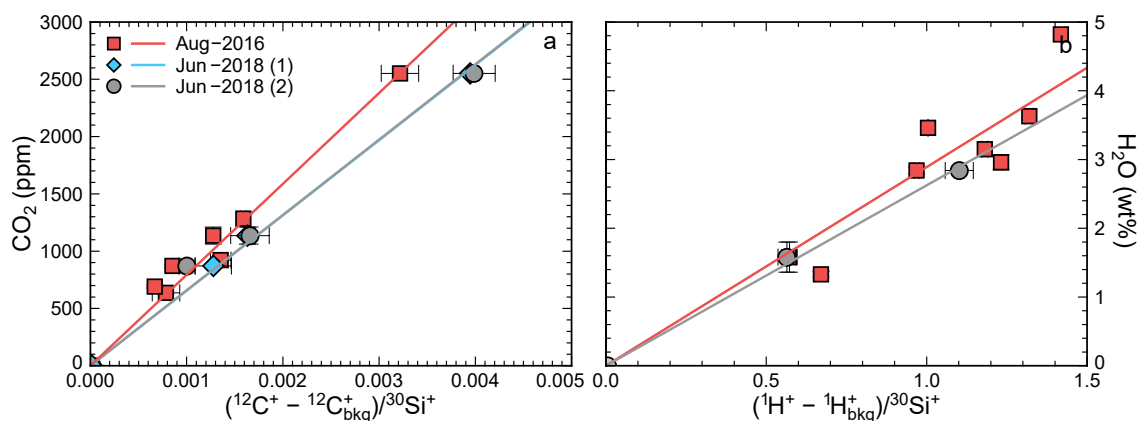


Figure 4.6: SIMS-4f calibration curves using standards in Table 4.7, where symbol shape and colour indicate the session of data collection: (a) CO_2 concentration against $(^{12}\text{C}^+ - ^{12}\text{C}_{\text{bkg}}^+)/^{30}\text{Si}^+$; and (b) H_2O concentration against $(^1\text{H}^+ - ^1\text{H}_{\text{bkg}}^+)/^{30}\text{Si}^+$. Error bars are the standard deviation based on repeat SIMS analysis during the session for ratios or those stated in Table 4.7 for concentrations.

Table 4.7: Volatile-free glass compositions and volatile concentrations of external basaltic glass standards.

Oxide (wt%)	BIR-1 ^a	St ^b	s ^c	17-2 ^c	Sample	H ₂ O (wt%)	<i>s.d.</i>	CO ₂ (ppm)	<i>s.d.</i>
SiO ₂	47.96	50.17	50.2	51.2	St-1 ^b	2.96	0.09	691	11
TiO ₂	0.96	0.92	0.84	0.82	St-2 ^b	2.84	0.05	1136	74
Al ₂ O ₃	15.5	18.28	15.20	15.9	St-3 ^b	1.33	0.04	1394	125
FeO _T	10.17	9.37	7.81	6.29	St-6 ^b	1.58	0.09	871	16
MnO	0.175	0.17	0.16	0.14	s2-3 ^d	3.15	0.18	636	119
MgO	9.70	7.00	7.87	8.31	s4-13 ^d	3.63	0.32	922	164
CaO	13.3	11.37	12.40	12.3	s5-14 ^d	3.46	0.11	1284	26
Na ₂ O	1.82	2.33	2.29	2.44	17-2 ^c	4.82	0.10	2552	192
K ₂ O	0.030	0.23	1.86	1.85					
P ₂ O ₅	0.021	0.15	0.64	0.68					

Notes: Data are from: ^aGladney and Roelandts (1988); ^bShishkina et al. (2010): major/minor elements measured using EPMA on remelted glass used in the experiments (individual glass compositions not reported), H₂O using Karl-Fischer titration, and CO₂ using CSA; ^cPichavant et al. (2009): major/minor elements measured using EPMA on the PST-9 starting glass (Pichavant et al., 2013) where individual glass compositions are not reported (s glasses) or the actual glass (17-2), and H₂O and CO₂ using FTIR; and ^dPichavant et al. (2013): H₂O and CO₂ measured using FTIR. Errors of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) are shown in *italics*.

4.2.3. Quantifying the bulk carbon isotope ratio

The measured carbon concentration and isotope ratio of each SHMS temperature step is a mixture of the carbon released from the glass and the instrumental blank, therefore using mass balance:

$$X_m = X_g + X_b \quad (4.6)$$

$$X_m R_m = X_g R_g + X_b R_b \quad (4.7)$$

where X_m , X_g , and X_b are the moles of carbon measured in each temperature step (m) and in the glass (g) and blank (b), respectively; and R_m , R_g , and R_b are the isotope ratios expressed as $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ actually measured (m) and in the glass (g) and blank (b), respectively. Equation 4.6 can be used to calculate the blank-corrected carbon concentration of the glass (X_g) for each temperature step. Substituting Equation 4.6 for X_g into Equation 4.7 and rearranging gives:

$$R_g = \frac{X_m R_m - X_b R_b}{X_m - X_b} \quad (4.8)$$

which is the blank-corrected carbon isotope ratio of the glass (R_g) at each temperature step. The blank-corrected values are calculated using the concentration (X_b) and isotope ratio (R_b) of the blank collected at the start of each sample. If the isotopic ratio of the blank was not measured at the start of the sample, the average of all blanks measured is used.

To calculate the total dissolved carbon composition in the glass, blank-corrected moles of carbon of temperature steps consisting of dissolved, not adsorbed, carbon are summed and divided by the weight of sample analysed. The bulk isotope ratio is calculated by summing the blank-corrected isotope ratios of

dissolved carbon weighted by the blank-corrected moles of carbon in that temperature step. As ensuring dissolved and adsorbed carbon are separated is critical, each sample is discussed to evaluate the reliability of the measurement and estimate its error. The temperature the glass was heated to using an induction coil are quoted to the nearest 100 °C, but Table 4.8 shows the exact temperature values calculated using the temperature calibration in Figure 4.5 for reference. Results from stepped-heated gas extraction, isotope ratio measurements, and blank-corrections are in Table 4.9 and Figure 4.7.

Table 4.8: Quoted (to the nearest 100 °C) and exact temperature values using Figure 4.5.

Quoted T (°C)	500	550	600	650	700	800	900	1000	1100	1200	1300	1400
Exact T (°C)	499	548	599	650	701	802	904	1005	1107	1209	1309	1412

All glasses show two stages of carbon release, the first at ~500–600 °C (low) and the second at ~600–1200 °C (high) temperatures, with light and heavy $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures respectively (Table 4.9 and Figure 4.7). The low temperature carbon release is attributed to contamination adsorbed to the surface of the glass and does not represent dissolved carbon within the glass (e.g., Macpherson et al., 1999). Hence, the low-temperature carbon has a very light isotope ratio (< -20 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) (Macpherson et al., 1999). The high temperature carbon release corresponds to the dissolved carbon in the glass (e.g., Macpherson et al., 1999) and is isotopically heavier than the low temperature contaminant as the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the CaCO_3 added to the starting materials was heavy (-2 to $+2$ ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, Table 4.2). Our experimental glasses contain no internal vesicles, hence there should be no intermediate release of CO_2 from vesicles. The experimental glasses are hydrous, hence the CO_2 is released at lower temperatures compared to previous results on anhydrous glass.

ETNA24 has a very large release of carbon at 600 °C, indicating significant adsorption. The exact mass is unknown as it saturated the pressure gauge in the known volume, therefore it was expanded into a larger, but uncalibrated, volume. The carbon concentration does not return to the blank at 700 °C, and the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value is higher than expected for the blank, indicating this step likely contains both adsorbed and dissolved carbon. The blank before analysis is twice as large as that after. This implies the initial blank is an overestimate of the true blank, hence the final blanks (0.25 μmol carbon) are used for the blank-correction. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gets heavier with increasing temperature. This implies carbon release from the glass is kinetically controlled, hence light carbon is released first and then the carbon becomes progressively isotopically heavier. After 1100 °C, the carbon gets isotopically lighter as the blank becomes a greater proportion of the carbon signature. The carbon concentration returns to the blank value at 1200 °C indicating complete extraction of carbon from the glass. Including the uncertainty in the proportion of dissolved carbon in the 700 °C step, and the value of the blank, the glass CO_2 concentration is 2568 ± 321 ppm with a $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -14.9 ± 1.1 ‰.

ETNA31 has good separation of adsorbed and dissolved carbon, with near-blank values at the 550 °C step. Near-blank values are achieved again at 1300 °C, implying all carbon in the glass has been released, although further carbon is released at 1400 °C. Unfortunately, due to instrumental problems, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are not available for this sample therefore it is not possible to calculate the glass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ or identify the source of the CO_2 released at very high temperature. The blank-corrected CO_2 concentration is 1628 ± 44 ppm.

ETNA32 has good separation between adsorbed and dissolved carbon. This is despite the 550 °C step having a high carbon concentration because its isotope ratio value is isotopically light, which is consistent with the adsorbed carbon. At very high temperature, significant carbon is released. The isotope ratio is very consistent between 600 and 1400 °C therefore, even though it is difficult to determine the source of the very

Table 4.9: Raw and blank-corrected carbon compositions using stepped-heating mass spectrometry.

Temperature (°C)	Baratron (V)	Raw C (μmol)	Raw $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	<i>s.d.</i>	Blank-corrected C (μmol)	Blank-corrected $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)
ETNA24 (0.19933 g)						
Blank	0.45	0.48	-23.949	0.079	0.24	
600	^a	^a	-19.902	0.055	^a	^a
700	1.48	1.59	-18.073	0.031	1.35	-16.992
800	5.58	6.00	-15.900	0.051	5.76	-15.554
900	2.95	3.17	-16.085	0.038	2.93	-15.420
1000	1.50	1.61	-14.033	0.250	1.37	-12.237
1100	0.40	0.43	-15.201	0.150	0.18	-3.366
1200	0.25	0.27	-17.994	0.250	0.02	50.489
1300	0.23	0.25	-25.077	0.399	0.00	
1400	0.23	0.25	n.d.		0.00	
ETNA31 (0.14616 g)						
Blank	0.105	0.113	-23.792	0.128	0	
500	0.879	0.945	-23.337	0.027	0.833	-23.275
550	0.237	0.256	-20.414	0.244	0.142	-17.727
600	1.141	1.228	n.d.		1.115	
1200	3.394	3.652	n.d.		3.539	
1300	0.286	0.308	-20.605	0.046	0.195	-18.756
1400 (1)	0.490	0.527	-20.534	0.032	0.414	-19.646
1400 (2)	0.253	0.272	-18.034	0.026	0.159	-13.949
1400 (3)	0.093	0.100	-21.793	0.069	-0.013	-39.284
ETNA32 (0.14169 g)						
Blank	0.089	0.096	-20		0	
500	1.590	1.711	-25.514	0.017	1.615	-25.841
550	0.880	0.947	-21.314	0.106	0.851	-21.462
600	0.929	1.000	-12.435	0.047	0.904	-11.634
650	4.062	4.371	-11.985	0.054	4.275	-11.806
1200	3.780	4.067	-12.782	0.033	3.972	-12.608
1300	1.480	1.592	-12.358	0.019	1.497	-11.869
1400 (1)	1.420	1.528	-13.087	0.031	1.432	-12.625
1400 (2)	0.330	0.355	n.d.	0.069	0.259	
1400 (3)	0.203	0.218	-15.690		0.123	-12.325
ETNA33 (0.10799 g)						
Blank	0.108	0.116	-24.100	0.051	0	
500	0.346	0.372	-24.850	0.083	0.256	-25.198
550	0.159	0.171	-22.875	0.200	0.055	-20.306
600	0.604	0.650	-11.277	0.057	0.534	-8.495
650	1.586	1.707	-11.884	0.094	1.591	-10.994
1200	2.680	2.884	-14.464	0.030	2.768	-14.061
1300	0.887	0.954	-18.699	0.018	0.839	-17.953
1400 (1)	1.240	1.334	-21		1.218	-18
1400 (2)	0.116	0.125	-13.665	0.025	0.009	
ETNA34 (0.13684 g)						
Blank	0.125	0.135	-20.000	0.059	0	
500	1.216	1.308	-24.313	0.032	1.174	-24.807
550	0.266	0.286	-22.097	0.013	0.152	-23.956
600	0.474	0.510	-12.548	1.446	0.376	-9.879
650	1.420	1.528	-10		1.393	-9.065
1200	2.507	2.698	-10.449	0.045	2.563	-9.948
1300	0.275	0.296	-20.783	0.020	0.161	-21.436
1400 (1)	0.701	0.754	-18.688	0.018	0.620	-18.403
1400 (2)	0.264	0.284	-21.595	0.027	0.150	-23.029

Table 4.9: Raw and blank-corrected carbon compositions using stepped-heating mass spectrometry *cont.*

Temperature (°C)	Baratron (V)	Raw C (μmol)	Raw $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	<i>s.d.</i>	Blank-corrected C (μmol)	Blank-corrected $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)
ETNA35 (0.12795 g)						
Blank	0.096	0.103	-19.961	<i>0.103</i>	0	
500	0.850	0.915	-22.651	<i>0.027</i>	0.811	-22.994
550 (1)	1.187	1.277	-12.016		1.174	-11.317
550 (2)	0.317	0.341	n.d.		0.238	
550 (3)	0.162	0.174	n.d.		0.071	
600	0.262	0.282	n.d.		0.179	
650	0.674	0.725	n.d.		0.622	
1200	1.788	1.924	n.d.		1.821	
1300	0.344	0.370	-16.009	<i>0.045</i>	0.267	-14.479
1400 (1)	0.386	0.415	-19.895	<i>0.027</i>	0.312	-19.873
1400 (2)	0.280	0.301	-15.303	<i>0.040</i>	0.198	-12.873
1400 (3)	0.042	0.045			-0.058	
ETNA36 (0.14169 g)						
Blank	0.089	0.096	-20		0	
500	1.590	1.711	-25.514	<i>0.017</i>	1.615	-25.841
550	0.880	0.947	-21.314	<i>0.106</i>	0.851	-21.462
600	0.929	1.000	-12.435	<i>0.047</i>	0.904	-11.634
650	4.062	4.371	-11.985	<i>0.054</i>	4.275	-11.806
1200	3.780	4.067	-12.782	<i>0.033</i>	3.972	-12.608
1300	1.480	1.592	-12.358	<i>0.019</i>	1.497	-11.869
1400 (1)	1.420	1.528	-13.087	<i>0.031</i>	1.432	-12.625
1400 (2)	0.330	0.355	n.d.		0.259	
1400 (3)	0.203	0.218	-15.690	<i>0.069</i>	0.123	-12.325

Notes: Temperatures are quoted to the nearest 100 °C and exact temperatures are given in Table 4.8; blank-corrections performed using Equations 4.6 and 4.8; weight of the sample is given in brackets after the sample name; errors, where available, of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) are shown in *italics*; ^a indicates pressure saturated the baratron and hence was not quantified; raw $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in *italics* are not measured but assumed to calculate the carbon composition of the sample; and n.d. means not determined due to analytical problems.

high temperature carbon, it does not affect the calculated isotope ratio. Hence, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is -11.75 ± 0.4 ‰. The CO_2 concentration is more uncertain, although a maximum estimate, including all high temperature carbon, is 3870 ppm.

ETNA33 has good separation between adsorbed and dissolved carbon, indicated by a low carbon concentration at 550 °C with an isotopically light isotope ratio. The high temperature carbon release pattern is strange as the isotope ratio gets isotopically lighter with increasing temperature. This is the opposite of what would be expected for kinetically-driven carbon release. Also, significant carbon is released at 1300–1400 °C, by which temperature all dissolved carbon should have been released. The trend in isotope ratios looks like a mixture between dissolved carbon with a heavy isotope value and a contaminant with a light isotope ratio. This release pattern makes quantifying the concentration and isotope ratio of the dissolved carbon uncertain. The best estimate is 2584 ± 249 ppm CO_2 and -14.3 ± 0.3 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, assuming it does not contain significant contamination.

ETNA34 has good separation between adsorbed and dissolved carbon. The carbon concentration does not return to the blank at 550 °C but its isotopic value is very light consistent with adsorbed carbon. At very high temperatures the carbon concentration does not return to the blank, but the isotope ratios are very light

consistent with the blank. Including the uncertainty in the origin of the very high temperature carbon gives a CO_2 concentration of 1543 ± 150 ppm and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -10.8 ± 0.5 ‰.

ETNA35 has good separation between adsorbed and dissolved carbon, but an odd release pattern at very high temperatures. Unfortunately, due to instrumental problems, no isotope ratios are available for this sample, therefore it is not possible to calculate the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of this glass. Including the uncertainty in the source of the high temperature carbon, the CO_2 concentration is 1050 ± 124 ppm.

ETNA36 has good separation of adsorbed and dissolved carbon, with a concentration and isotope ratio consistent with the blank at 550°C . At very high temperatures ($>1300^\circ\text{C}$), the carbon concentration does not return to the blank and has a heavy isotope ratio. The blank-corrected CO_2 concentration is 1963 ± 94 ppm, based on the uncertainty of the origin of the very high temperature carbon. Unfortunately, there is no isotopic value for the 650°C temperature step. Assuming a value of -10 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, based on the 700 and 1200°C temperature steps, gives a $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -10.3 \pm 0.4$ ‰ assuming the blank had a $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -20 to -25 ‰ as no value was measured.

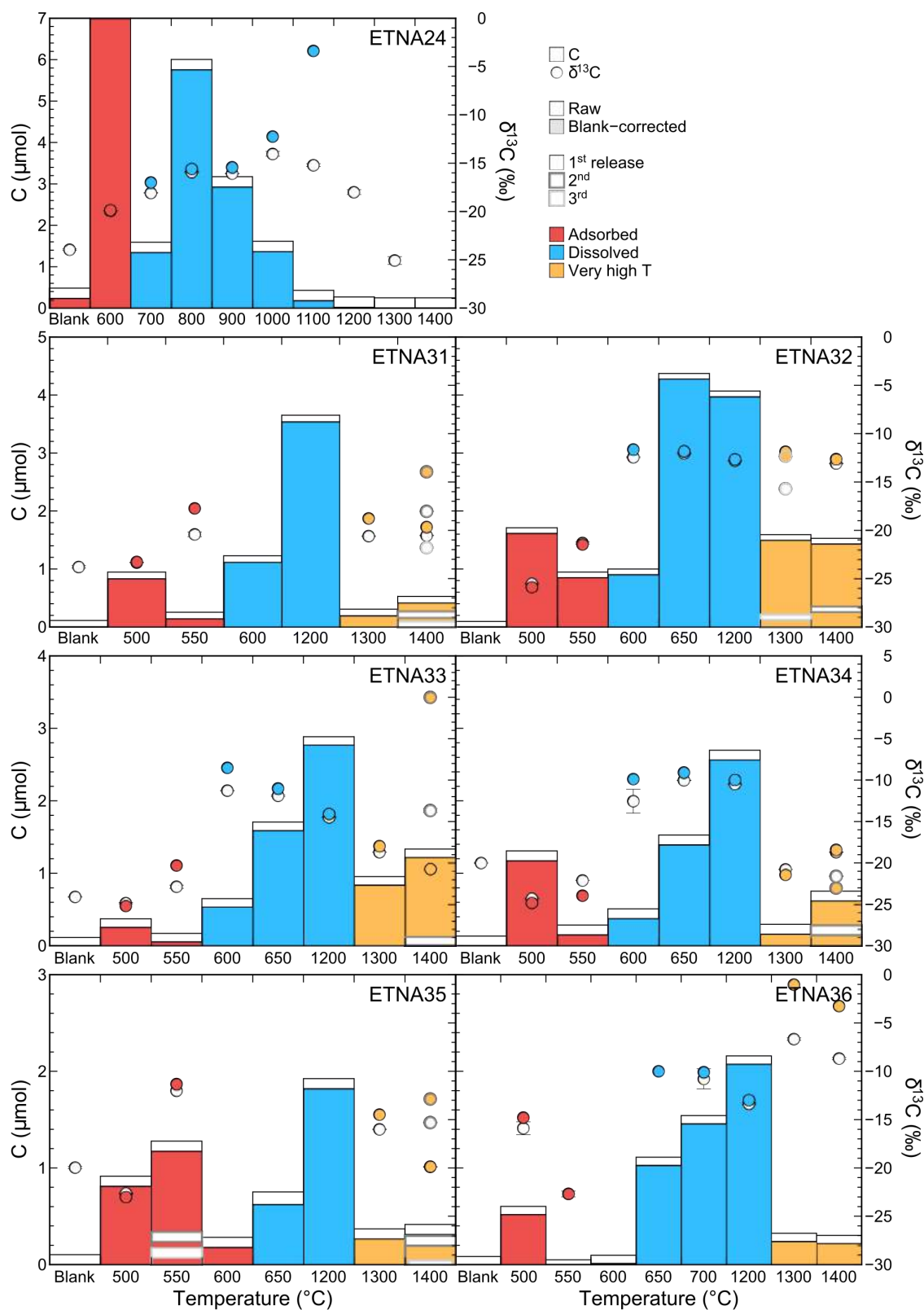


Figure 4.7: Stepped-heating mass spectrometry results for each temperature step, where bars indicate mass of carbon released and circles are the corresponding $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Raw values are shown in white and blank-corrected values are coloured by the inferred type of carbon released. If multiple releases were done at the same temperature, they are shown using different outline colours. Sample number is shown in the top right corner. Temperatures are quoted to the nearest 100 °C and exact values are shown in Table 4.8.

4.2.4. Hydrous basaltic glass standards

Table 4.10 details the composition of the glass standards produced. All glasses are basaltic, and hence appropriate for use on basaltic arc melt inclusions and the experiments in Chapter 5. They cover a range of carbon isotope ratios (-14.9 to -10.3 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and concentrations (644–4629 ppm CO_2) present as CO_3^{2-} (Figure 4.8). They also cover a range in hydrogen concentration (0.67–2.86 wt% H_2O). Glasses are homogeneous and show <10 % variation in CO_2 concentration based on spatially-separated, repeated SIMS analyses. The exception to this is ETNA35, which has 30 % variability in CO_2 ($n = 7$). The reproducibility of CO_2 using different techniques is somewhat variable, with >20 % difference for some samples (Table 4.10 and Figure F.1b), which may affect the reliability of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurements. Unfortunately, repeat measurements of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the glasses were not possible due to the large amount of material required, but Macpherson et al. (1999) achieved ± 0.5 ‰ in their study of ALV981-R23.

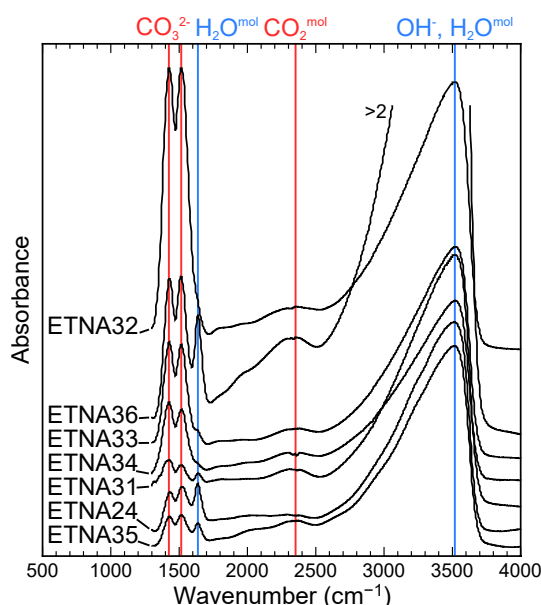


Figure 4.8: Background-corrected FTIR spectra of each glass (labelled on the left-hand side), which are offset but use the same relative scale. The (OH^- , $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{mol}}$) peak at ~ 3500 cm^{-1} for ETNA36 is too high (>2 absorbance) so has been cut off. Peaks for carbon- (red) and hydrogen- (blue) bearing species are shown as vertical lines, labelled along the top.

Unfortunately, some of these glasses are not appropriate for use as SIMS standards. Due to problems analytical problems, the carbon isotope ratio for ETNA31 and ETNA35 could not be quantified using SHMS (Section 4.2.3), hence no independent measurements of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are available. Also, ETNA31 gained significant weight during the IHPV run, and ETNA35 leaked some glass on the quench, which are likely to have effected their carbon compositions. The release pattern of ETNA33 implies carbon contamination at high temperature (Figure 4.7). Therefore, the carbon isotope measurement may have been compromised and hence it is not used as a standard for SIMS analysis. ETNA34 leaked a small amount of glass on the quench. This may have caused a brief period of open-system degassing before the glass quenched, consistent with its low volatile content. This is unlikely to be an equilibrium process and, although the carbon concentration is homogeneous (10 % variation based on repeated SIMS analyses, Table 4.10), the carbon isotope ratio may not be. As SHMS is a bulk technique it cannot be used to check sample homogeneity. Hence, ETNA34 is also excluded as a standard for SIMS analysis. ETNA32 was run twice at the same conditions due to a failed quench, but this is unlikely to have affected its carbon composition. Therefore ETNA24, ETNA32, and ETNA36 were chosen as standards for SIMS analysis as these glasses had no problems during synthesis and showed good separation between adsorbed and dissolved carbon (Figure 4.7).

Table 4.10: Glass and fluid compositions.

	ETNA24	s.d.	ETNA31	s.d.	ETNA32	s.d.	ETNA33	s.d.	ETNA34	s.d.	ETNA35	s.d.	ETNA36	s.d.
SiO ₂	48.65	0.11	48.50	0.11	48.72	0.12	49.06	0.13	48.65	0.11	47.88	0.16	47.60	0.09
TiO ₂	1.71	0.03	1.79	0.02	1.76	0.03	1.79	0.03	1.80	0.03	1.76	0.03	1.75	0.03
Al ₂ O ₃	16.92	0.07	16.01	0.05	15.86	0.05	15.95	0.04	15.94	0.05	15.75	0.03	15.62	0.08
FeO _T	10.09	0.07	8.62	0.13	8.71	0.15	8.83	0.14	9.20	0.16	9.60	0.10	9.64	0.11
MnO	0.21	0.02	0.17	0.01	0.17	0.01	0.16	0.01	0.16	0.01	0.18	0.01	0.17	0.01
MgO	5.99	0.05	6.26	0.03	6.14	0.03	6.18	0.06	6.21	0.03	6.15	0.04	6.07	0.05
CaO	6.73	0.04	10.52	0.08	10.34	0.08	10.37	0.11	10.35	0.12	10.21	0.13	10.09	0.09
Na ₂ O	3.94	0.07	4.16	0.08	4.13	0.06	4.17	0.08	4.21	0.08	4.14	0.07	4.05	0.08
K ₂ O	1.78	0.02	1.88	0.01	1.88	0.02	1.90	0.01	1.88	0.02	1.86	0.01	1.84	0.02
P ₂ O ₅	0.46	0.03	0.53	0.02	0.52	0.02	0.51	0.01	0.52	0.01	0.51	0.01	0.52	0.01
H ₂ O ^a	2.91	0.09	0.86	0.01	0.96	0.01	n.d.		0.65	0.01	1.55	0.01	2.04	0.02
H ₂ O ^b	3.31	0.34	1.02	0.02	1.13	0.02	1.10	0.06	0.77	0.06	2.26	0.20	1.55	0.16
H ₂ O ^c	2.86	0.06	0.95	0.06	1.02	0.06	1.04	0.06	0.67	0.06	1.64	0.06	2.30	0.06
δD^c (‰)	-135.7	0.9	-107.1	0.9	-103.9	0.9	-99.0	0.9	-145.1	0.9	-148.2	0.9	-101.6	0.9
CO ₂ ^a (ppm)	1764	100	644	68	4629	256	2015	31	1425	160	1058	295	1606	46
CO ₂ ^b (ppm)	2564	489	493	117	5037	216	2202	154	1115	157	1092	110	1675	151
CO ₂ ^d (ppm)	2568	321	1628	44	3870		2584	249	1543	150	1050	124	1963	94
$\delta^{13}\text{C}^d$ (‰)	-14.9	1.1	n.d.		-11.75	0.4	-14.3	0.3	-10.8	0.5	n.d.		-10.3	0.4
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	0.76	0.07	0.94	0.08	0.79	0.08	0.88	0.08	0.83	0.07	0.45	0.07	0.80	0.07
H ₂ O ^e (g)	0.0026	0.0001	0.0030	0.0001	0.0014	0.0001	0.0007	0.0001	0.0013	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0009	0.0001
CO ₂ ^e (g)	0.0000	0.0001	0.0465	0.0001	-0.0003	0.0001	0.0008	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001	0.0005	0.0001	0.0006	0.0001

Notes: All analyses of the glass are in wt% (except where otherwise stated) using EPMA, except for ^aSIMS, ^bFTIR, ^cTCEA, ^dSHMS and ^eweight loss using freezing/boiling to measure the fluid. All Fe is reported as FeO (FeO_T). Errors of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) are shown in *italics*. n.d. means not determined.

4.3. Carbon isotope analysis using secondary ion mass spectrometry

This section develops an analytical protocol to measure carbon isotope ratios using SIMS, with the aim of analysing single melt inclusions. Different ion probe set-ups using a range of glasses (Section 4.3.1) are investigated to ascertain the best analytical set-up for simultaneous carbon concentration and isotope analysis (Section 4.3.2). The spatial resolution of these analyses is measured by imaging the analytical pits (Section 4.3.3). Sources of contamination, for example from the instrumental vacuum (the ‘blank’) and on the sample surface, are investigated (Section 4.3.5). Different data processing routines are tested for calibration of carbon concentration and isotope ratios and potential matrix effects are investigated (Section 4.3.6).

4.3.1. Samples

Melt inclusions cover a wide range of volatiles compositions, typically containing 0–3000 ppm CO_2 and 0–4 wt% H_2O (e.g., Wallace, 2005). Hence, in addition to the hydrous, carbon-rich, basaltic glass standards in Section 4.2.4 (ETNA24, ETNA32, and ETNA36); anhydrous, carbon-poor, basaltic glass standards (i.e., with independently measured carbon isotope ratios using SHMS) are needed.

ALV981-R23 is an anhydrous, submarine basaltic glass from the East Pacific Rise. It is well characterised, having been analysed multiple times at different laboratories using SHMS (Des Marais, 1986; Macpherson et al., 1999; Pineau and Javoy, 1983). We use the values from Macpherson et al. (1999) for the dissolved carbon composition of 405.6 ± 8 ppm CO_2 and -5.70 ± 0.41 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Table 4.11). This glass was also used as a carbon isotope standard by Hauri (2002) and Hauri et al. (2002). CH9 glasses are submarine basalts from the Mid-Atlantic Ridge, which are mostly glass but do contain some small crystals. Their carbon composition was analysed using SHMS by Aubaud (2002) (Table 4.11). These glasses are used as secondary standards to test analyses on carbon-poor glasses.

Table 4.11: Composition of anhydrous, carbon-poor, natural, basaltic glasses with known $\delta^{13}\text{C}$.

Sample	ALV981-R23 ^a	CH97DR02 ^b	CH98DR07 ^b
SiO_2	49.70	50.61	49.93
TiO_2	1.25	1.15	1.32
Al_2O_3	16.92	15.37	15.42
FeO_T	8.70	9.16	10.22
MnO	0.15	0.16	0.21
MgO	8.52	8.88	9.22
CaO	11.05	11.71	11.25
Na_2O	3.05	2.04	2.48
K_2O	0.05	0.31	0.05
P_2O_5	n.d.	0.17	0.14
H_2O	0.14	0.464	0.245
CO_2 (ppm)	405.6 ± 8	108	95
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	-5.70 ± 0.41	-10.8	-7.2

Notes: ^a major/minor elements and H_2O from Fine and Stolper (1986) and carbon composition from Macpherson et al. (1999), and ^b major/minor elements and H_2O from Jambon and Zimmermann (1990) and carbon composition from Aubaud (2002). Oxides in wt%, except where otherwise stated.

San Carlos olivine and an olivine from Rangitoto, New Zealand, were used to investigate the instrumental

blank, as olivine contains essentially no carbon (e.g., San Carlos olivine <2 ppm CO_2 ; Mathez and Delaney, 1981). Additionally, experimental glasses in Chapter 5 were analysed which, although they have unknown carbon isotope ratio, have known carbon concentrations (Table 5.6) and hence were useful to understand the level of carbon background during analysis.

Glass chips and olivine were mounted in epoxy, ground, and polished to $\sim 1\text{--}3\ \mu\text{m}$ finish. These were plucked out of epoxy and pressed into indium to reduce the carbon background due to outgassing from epoxy. To investigate the potential causes of carbon contamination during sample preparation and analysis, one San Carlos olivine was additionally cleaned prior to gold coating using a Plasma Etcher for three hours at 3×10^{-1} mbar oxygen and 100 W power by J. Craven. All mounts were gold coated ($\sim 40\text{--}80$ nm thickness) to provide a conductive surface.

4.3.2. SIMS technique development for carbon isotope analysis

Different ion probe set-ups were tested to measure the carbon isotope ratio in silicate glass. All analyses were carried out on the Cameca IMS-1270 at the Edinburgh Ion Microprobe Facility, School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, UK. Although positive carbon ions (C^+) are often used for quantifying carbon concentration (e.g., $^{12}\text{C}^+$ in Section 4.2.2), the ion yield is too low to get sufficient counts on $^{13}\text{C}^+$ for isotope analysis. Hence, a Cs^+ primary beam was used to produce negative carbon ions (C^-), which has a higher ion yield (e.g., Hauri et al., 2002). The surface of the sample must be neutralised due to Cs^+ implantation and negative secondary ion extraction (e.g., Hauri et al., 2002). Hence, an electron gun floods the analysis area to maintain charge balance. To improve spatial resolution, a field aperture was used so that only secondary ions coming from the central $10 \times 10\ \mu\text{m}^2$ were analysed (Figure 4.9).

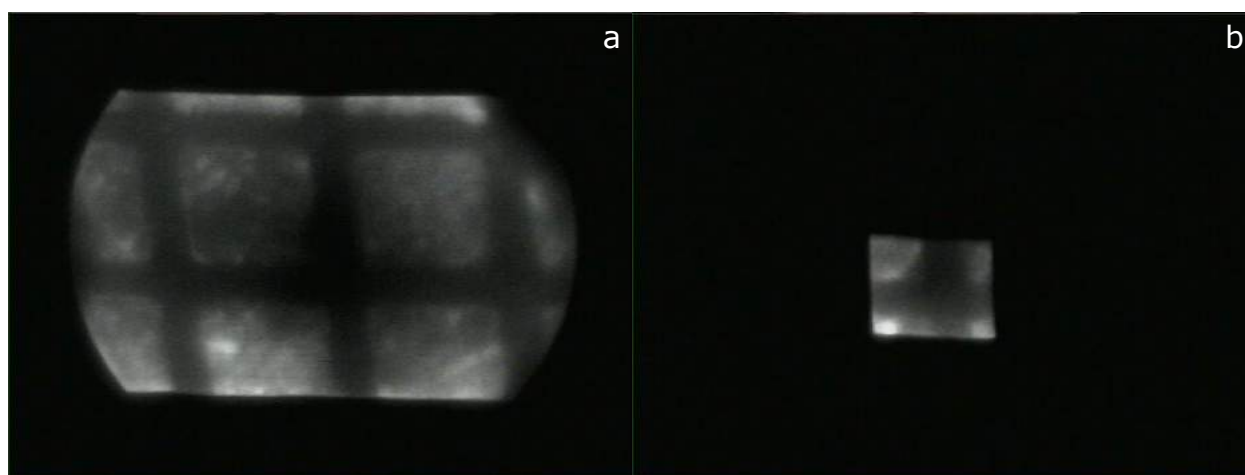


Figure 4.9: Scanning ion microscopy (SIM) images at the same scale of a $10\ \mu\text{m}$ spaced grid, where (b) uses a field aperture. Images courtesy of J. Craven.

The species analysed were $^{12}\text{C}^-$, $^{13}\text{C}^-$, and $^{18}\text{O}^-$ in mono-collector mode, hence only one species is measured at a time. The count rate of these species changes during the measurement (termed ‘internal drift’), hence the species should be cycled through quickly, but wait times are dictated by how long it takes the magnet to switch between masses. The wait time for switching between $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$ is short because the mass-charge ratio difference is small. Conversely, between $^{13}\text{C}^-$ and $^{18}\text{O}^-$ or $^{18}\text{O}^-$ and $^{12}\text{C}^-$ the wait time is longer due to the greater mass-charge ratio difference. Increasing the number of cycles collects more

counts but drills further into the sample, which limits the spatial resolution in depth. Additionally, this can cause isotopic fractionation and charging if the analysis pit becomes too deep. Therefore, count times and number of cycles are a trade-off to try and achieve the most precise measurement in the shortest amount of time. The analytical precision is dictated by the number of counts on $^{13}\text{C}^-$, which is predominantly dictated by the carbon concentration in the sample. The sputtering process is not well understood, hence all standards and samples must be analysed in the same way for quantitative analysis. This means cycle length cannot be changed depending on carbon concentration, and more repeats must be collected on carbon-poor samples to achieve the same precision as carbon-rich samples.

Samples were loaded into the airlock the night before analysis, then transferred to the analysis chamber. Typically, analyses were collected in triplicate, and multiple triplicates were collected on each sample to improve precision depending on the carbon concentration. ETNA24 or ETNA32 were analysed repeatedly throughout the day to correct for external drift. To understand the carbon background, San Carlos olivine that had undergone ‘normal’ and ‘clean’ sample preparation was analysed (Section 4.3.1), after being in the sample chamber undisturbed for varying lengths of time by J. Craven. Also, additional analyses on Rangitoto olivine were carried out under different vacuums (count/wait times, s, of 2/6 $^{12}\text{C}^-$, 6/2 $^{13}\text{C}^-$, and 0.5/4 $^{18}\text{O}^-$) and different pre-raster routines (0×0 to $30 \times 30 \mu\text{m}^2$ rastered area, 120–600 s pre-raster time and 20 cycles, using the set-up in Table 4.13).

Two analytical set-ups were used: set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) only analysed $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$, which would give the highest precision as more time was spent measuring $^{13}\text{C}^-$; whilst set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) additionally measured $^{18}\text{O}^-$, which would allow for more accurate quantification of carbon concentration simultaneously.

Set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$)

Set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) analysed $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$ using electron multipliers. The primary beam (~ 5 nA beam current) and electron gun were aligned on Monastery Ilmenite each day, which involved moving the sample between the airlock and analysis chamber. The peak positions of $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$ were identified using mass-ratio scans, and the $^{13}\text{C}^-$ position was chosen to avoid $(^{12}\text{C}^1\text{H})^-$. The primary beam was approximately manually aligned if moving large distances in the sample mount. This avoids collecting data under large beam deflections, which can compromise data quality. For each analysis, the primary beam position was aligned, and the magnet calibrated, automatically on $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and a linear shift on magnet position was applied to $^{13}\text{C}^-$. The analytical target was ‘cleaned’ by rastering the beam over a $15 \times 15 \mu\text{m}^2$ area for one minute to reduce surface contamination. Count and wait times are detailed in Table 4.12, where 100 cycles were collected resulting in ~ 17 mins analysis time.

Table 4.12: Species, count, and wait times for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$).

Species	$^{12}\text{C}^-$	$^{13}\text{C}^-$
Count time (s)	1	6
Wait time (s)	1.5	1.5

Set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$)

Set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) analysed $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$ on electron multipliers and $^{18}\text{O}^-$ on a Faraday cup. Oxygen was chosen as it is abundant in silicate glass. $^{16}\text{O}^-$ would overload the detectors at the beam currents needed to analyse carbon, hence the minor isotope of $^{18}\text{O}^-$ was used. The addition of $^{18}\text{O}^-$ increased the analysis time but meant that $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ could be used for accurate quantification of carbon concentration at the same time as isotope ratio measurements. Also, silicate glass contains ~ 50 wt% oxygen, therefore the beam position could be aligned, and the magnet calibrated, on $^{18}\text{O}^-$ rather than $^{12}\text{C}^-$. This improved beam positioning on carbon-poor samples. If standards and unknowns have very different $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values, this may effect quantifying the carbon concentration using this method. Silicon was also considered but the additional analysis time for using $^{30}\text{Si}^-$ was too long and the ionisation yield of $^{30}\text{Si}^{2-}$ (mass-charge ratio of 15) was too low to be useful.

Primary beam (~ 7 nA beam current) and electron gun alignment were only conducted on Monastery Ilmenite at the beginning of the analysis week, after which the sample mount remained in the analysis chamber undisturbed. Tweaks to the primary beam and electron gun position were made each day on the glasses, which resulted in slightly worse alignment. On the other hand, the vacuum was significantly improved by not having to open to the airlock each day. A Ti-sublimator was used in addition to rotary pumps to improve the background. Olivine was analysed twice per day to monitor the carbon background. The pre-raster routine was a 10 mins raster over a $30 \times 30 \mu\text{m}^2$ area. Count and wait times are detailed in Table 4.13. Due to the addition of $^{18}\text{O}^-$, 40 cycles were collected to avoid drilling too far into the sample resulting, in a ~ 30 mins analysis time.

Table 4.13: Species, count, and wait times for set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$).

Species	$^{12}\text{C}^-$	$^{13}\text{C}^-$	$^{18}\text{O}^-$
Count time (s)	1	8	0.5
Wait time (s)	6	2	5

4.3.3. Imaging SIMS analysis pits**Scanning electron microscopy**

To measure the spatial resolution of the SIMS analysis, and understand the effect of the analysis on the glass composition, some of the SIMS pits were imaged with scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using the Carl Zeiss SIGMA HD VP Field Emission SEM at the School of Geosciences, University of Edinburgh, UK. Analysis pits imaged were created using set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$). Samples were taken straight from the SIMS to the SEM, after an additional thin gold coat had been applied. Analytical conditions were an accelerating voltage of 20 kV and a 11.0 mm working distance. Secondary electron (SE) images were used to measure the size of the SIMS analysis pits, whilst energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) was used to look at their composition.

Scanning ion microscopy

To investigate the location of carbon contamination and measure the spatial resolution of the SIMS analysis, scanning ion microscopy (SIM) images were collected of analysis pits created using set-up two

($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$). Set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) (Table 4.13) was used for imaging with a beam current of 0.5 nA, which gives higher spatial resolution and images were collected over $100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$, collecting either 13 or 20 cycles. One image is produced per cycle and images were processed using ImageJ (Abramoff et al., 2004). Images from each cycle were summed for $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{18}\text{O}^-$ separately, and then the summed $^{12}\text{C}^-$ image was divided by the summed $^{18}\text{O}^-$ image to create a $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ image. Images of $^{13}\text{C}^-$ were also collected but not processed due to the low count rate.

4.3.4. Sputtering process

During SIMS, material is sputtered from the surface, hence the analysis changes over time as successive cycles of data are collected. This creates a depth profile into the sample, which can reveal compositional changes if the sample is inhomogeneous, such as due to surface contamination. Ions can also be fractionated during this process as the analysis pit gets deeper. Implantation of Cs^+ during analysis can change the ionisation yield over time (e.g., Wittmaack, 1983). These processes cause the count rate of a specific isotopic species to change over time. Therefore, it is important to understand what is causing any changes to the sputtering curve over time to decide whether all cycles should be used or only a subset. For instance, if the first few cycles are affected by surface contamination they should be removed. Sputtering processes are also affected by the instrument set-up, hence sputtering curves can change after the ion probe has been retuned.

Figure 4.10 shows typical sputtering curves for individual species ($^{12}\text{C}^-$, $^{13}\text{C}^-$, and $^{18}\text{O}^-$) and ratios ($^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$) for ALV981-R23. $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$ either continuously decrease with time, or have an initial increase followed by a decrease with time (Figures 4.10a and b). $^{18}\text{O}^-$ initially increases over a longer period of time, then begins to decrease (Figure 4.10c). None of the species reach a steady state within a single analysis. The initial increase in counts is likely due to the implantation of Cs^+ at the start of the analysis, which can enhance ionisation (e.g., Wittmaack, 1983).

$^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$ curves track each other with time, hence $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ is constant throughout the analysis (Figures 4.10a, b, and d). This implies the decline in carbon counts with time is not due to surface contamination, as this would not be expected to have the same isotope ratio as the dissolved carbon in the glass and the decrease in carbon counts would be much more abrupt than the continuous decrease here. This does not rule out continuously added carbon contamination (e.g., from the vacuum or edge of the analysis pit), but olivine analyses show contamination was low during the analyses shown in Figure 4.10, which is discussed in detail in Section 4.3.5. As the $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$ ions are not fractionated from each other during analysis, all cycles can be used to calculate $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$. The decrease in counts with time means that simply counting for longer (i.e., more cycles) produces diminishing returns in terms of counting statistics and the associated error.

$^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{18}\text{O}^-$ fractionate from each other during the analysis, which causes $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ to initially increase then decrease with time (Figures 4.10a, c, and d). If a second analysis is conducted in the same analysis pit, the initial count rate begins where the previous analysis stopped and then plateaus (Figure 4.10). This implies it is the depth within the analysis pit controlling the fractionation and that a steady state is reached eventually. Different pre-raster durations do not affect the sputtering curves (Figure 4.10), hence the sample surface is defined by the pre-rastered area not the original surface. Although steady-state was not reached within a single analysis of 40 cycles, the change in the last ten cycles is small hence, the last ten cycles were averaged for $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$.

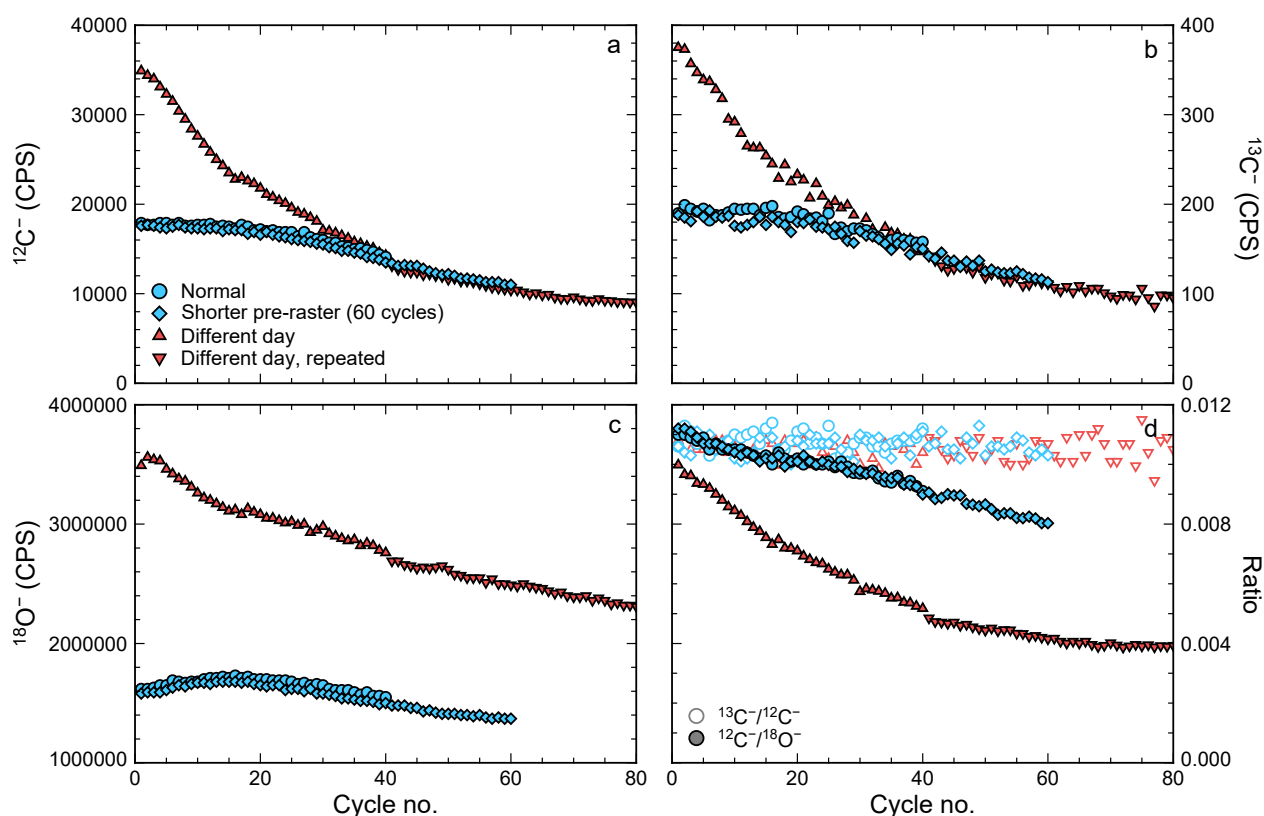


Figure 4.10: Example sputter curves for ALV981-R23 collected using set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$): (a) $^{12}\text{C}^-$, (b) $^{13}\text{C}^-$, (c) $^{18}\text{O}^-$, and (d) $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ in open symbols and $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ in closed symbols. A ‘normal’ sputter curve is shown in blue circles (600 s pre-raster, 40 cycles). The sputter curve in blue diamonds has a shorter pre-raster (120 s) but more cycles (60) and hence the same total analysis time. The sputter curve in red triangles was collected under slightly different analytical conditions and was analysed a second time in the same pit as shown in the red inverted triangles.

Figure 4.10 also shows the sputtering curves on the same sample over two days of analysis. Analyses collected on different days were collected under slightly different analytical conditions as the ion probe is retuned each morning to ensure good data collection. If data from different days are to be compared, these changes must be monitored and accounted for.

4.3.5. Contamination

Analysis of olivine showed that significant carbon contamination was present during SIMS analysis, leading to a potentially very high carbon background (Figure 4.11). The carbon background can be quantified as the average of the $^{12}\text{C}^-$ counts, but this can be affected by differences in ion probe set-up (e.g., beam current), and therefore it is only appropriate for data collected over a short time period (e.g., Figure 4.11c). Using the average $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ ratio removes this problem (e.g., Figure 4.11a). As the $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ changes with time, simply averaging all the cycles may mask variations, hence an exponential function can be fitted to $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ (Equation 3.2 where I is $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$). The $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ at ∞ time divided by the probe current ($[^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-]_{\infty}/\text{PB}$) is useful for comparing data collected over many sessions (e.g., Figure 4.11b).

The carbon contamination was found to vary with vacuum and pre-raster routine (Figure 4.11). Broadly, carbon contamination decreases with decreasing analysis chamber pressure (Figures 4.11b, c, and d), although there is scatter in these data. After a sample was moved from the airlock into the analysis chamber,

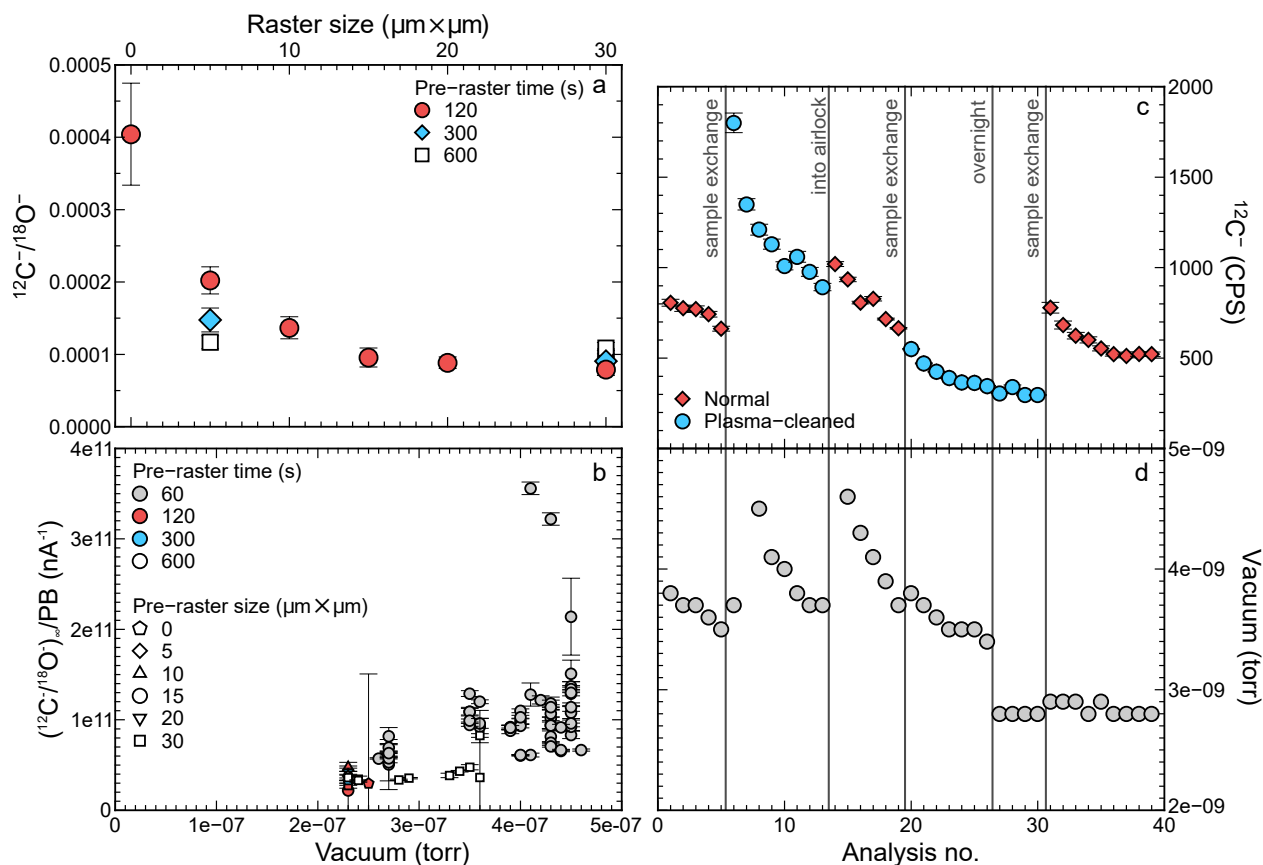


Figure 4.11: Olivine analyses to investigate the carbon background: **(a)** $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ against raster size on Rangitoto olivine, where symbol shape and colour indicates pre-raster time; **(b)** $(^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-)_{\infty}/\text{PB}$ against vacuum pressure for Rangitoto and San Carlos olivine, where symbol colour indicates pre-raster time and symbol shape indicates pre-raster size; **(c)** $^{12}\text{C}^-$ for consecutive analyses on ‘normal’ (red diamond) and ‘cleaned’ (blue circle) San Carlos olivine; and **(d)** the vacuum pressure for analyses shown in **(c)**. Vertical lines in **(c)** and **(d)** show when samples were moved between the airlock and analysis chamber (sample exchange), when samples were loaded into the airlock (into airlock), and when samples were left in the analysis chamber overnight (overnight).

the carbon background decreased with time. Eventually the carbon contamination plateaued, although the level at which it reached steady-state was not constant (Figure 4.11c). For the same analysis chamber pressure, enlarging the pre-rastered area or increasing the pre-raster time decreased the carbon contamination (Figure 4.11a). Plasma cleaning the sample appeared to have no effect on the carbon contamination (Figure 4.11c). In fact the contamination increased but this is likely not caused by the cleaning procedure itself. For gold coating the sample, a rotary pump is used, hence any removal of carbon by plasma cleaning maybe reset when the sample is gold coated.

There appear to be two components to the carbon background. As it decreases with vacuum pressure (Figure 4.11b) and time in the analysis chamber (Figures 4.11c and d), some component comes from the analysis chamber itself. Additionally, as it changes with pre-raster routine (Figure 4.11a), some component is likely derived from the sample surface. A small pre-raster area means the analysed area may not have been properly cleaned before analysis. Imaging of the analysis pits after analysis confirmed the presence of elevated regions of carbon at the edges of the raster pits, especially on the vertical edges (Figure 4.12).

Carbon contamination was insignificant when a pre-raster area of $30 \times 30 \mu\text{m}^2$ and a minimum time of 120

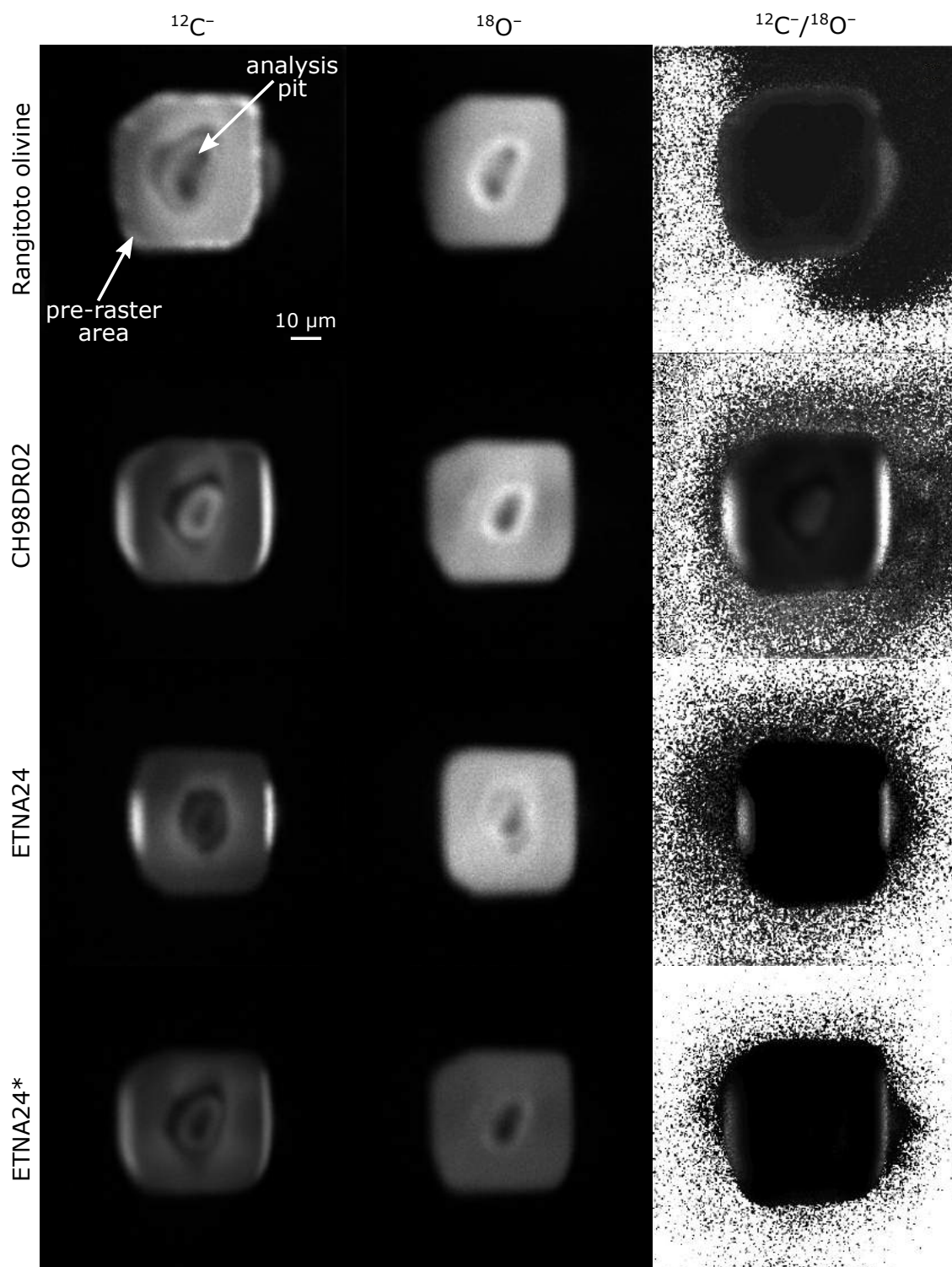


Figure 4.12: Scanning ion microscopy (SIM) images of SIMS analysis pits created using set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$): species are shown along the top and sample is shown down the left-hand side. All images are $100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$ in area. The large square region is the pre-raster area and the smaller, darker area in its centre is the analysis pit. ETNA24 and ETNA24* are two different analysis pits on ETNA24, where ETNA24 was analysed earlier in the week than ETNA24* and they show different beam shapes.

s was used (Figure 4.11a). Additionally, a high vacuum was achieved by leaving the samples in the analysis chamber undisturbed. Conversely, carbon contamination was significant when a pre-raster area of $15 \times 15 \mu\text{m}^2$ and time of 60 s was used (Figure 4.11b), and samples were switched between the air lock and analysis

chamber each day, which resulted in a poor vacuum. Carbon contamination also causes problems for beam position if $^{12}\text{C}^-$ is used. This is because the automatic scan picks up the carbon contamination on the edge of the pre-sputtered area (Figure 4.12), and hence incorrectly calculates the beam position.

4.3.6. Calibration

Data processing

Carbon isotope ratios were calculated using $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ for both set-ups. For set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$), carbon concentration was calculated using $^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB}$, where PB is the average of the probe current measured before and after the analysis. For set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$), $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ was used for carbon concentration. Isotope ratios ($^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ for both set-ups, and $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ in set-up two) were internally drift corrected by interpolating the $^{13}\text{C}^-$ or $^{18}\text{O}^-$ at the time the $^{12}\text{C}^-$ counts were collected. For $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB}$ the average and standard deviation (σ) of all cycles were then calculated, after which any datum outside of 3σ were rejected. The average, standard deviation, and standard error of the remaining data were then recalculated. For $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$, only the last ten cycles were averaged, as discussed in Section 4.3.4. To account for daily and day-to-day drift as discussed in Section 4.3.4, external drift was monitored using ETNA24 and ETNA32. These were analysed regularly throughout the day, and linear fits to the drift were fitted in sections (Figure 4.13). External drift was corrected for by dividing the internally drift corrected value ($^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$, $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$, and $^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB}$) by the calculated value of the standard at the time the data was collected, for example:

$$(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)_{\text{sample}}^{\text{edc}} = \frac{(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)_{\text{sample}}^t}{(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)_{\text{standard}}^t} \quad (4.9)$$

where $(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)_{\text{sample}}^{\text{edc}}$ is the externally drift corrected $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ of the sample; $(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)_{\text{sample}}^t$ is the internally drift corrected $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ of the sample collected at time t ; $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ is the calculated $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ of the standard at time t ; and $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ can be replaced by $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ and $^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB}$. A correction factor was applied when the standard was changed between ETNA32 and ETNA24 to keep all data consistent.

Carbon concentration

For calibrating the carbon concentration, the average and standard deviation for each glass collected using set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) or two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) of $(^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB})^{\text{edc}}$ or $(^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-)^{\text{edc}}$ were calculated. A weighted (on the standard deviation of $(^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB})^{\text{edc}}$ or $(^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-)^{\text{edc}}$) least squares regression was then calculated (Figure 4.14) against independently constrained carbon concentrations. For set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$), this consisted of ALV981-R23 (Table 4.11), the hydrous carbon-rich ETNA glasses (Table 4.10), and additionally the ETNA glasses described in Chapter 5 (Table 5.6 except ETNA30) (Figure 4.14a). For set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$), this consisted of Rangitoto olivine (~ 0 ppm CO_2), anhydrous carbon-poor glasses (Table 4.11), some of the hydrous carbon-rich glasses (Table 4.10 except ETNA31, ETNA33, and ETNA35), and some of the ETNA glasses described in Chapter 5 (ETNA12–ETNA14 and ETNA30 in Table 5.6) (Figure 4.14b).

The data using $(^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB})^{\text{edc}}$ are more scattered than $(^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-)^{\text{edc}}$ (Figure 4.14). This is because dividing by $^{18}\text{O}^-$ is more effective at correcting for instrumental changes during the analysis than dividing by the

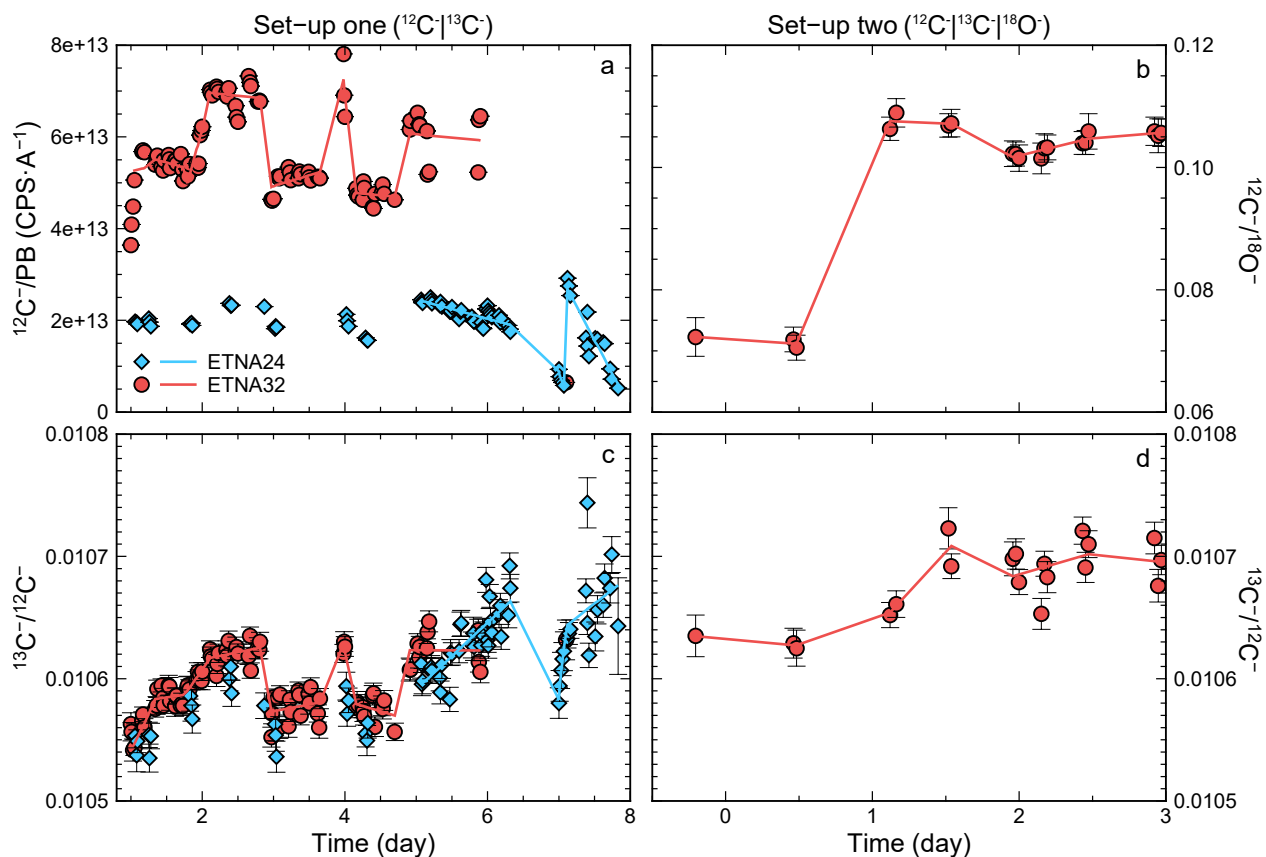


Figure 4.13: External drift corrections for (a) $^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB}$ where PB is the average probe current; (b) $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$; (c) and (d) $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$, using ETNA24 (blue diamond) and ETNA32 (red circle). Set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) is shown in (a) and (c) and set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) is shown in (b) and (d).

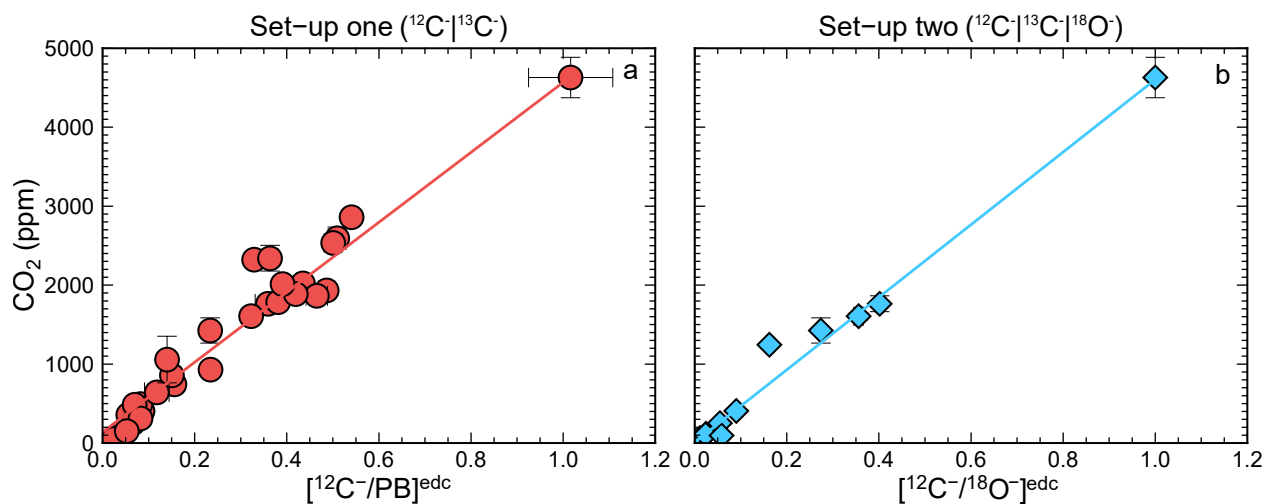


Figure 4.14: SIMS-1270 calibration curves for CO_2 concentration against external drift-corrected (a) $^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB}$ for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) and (b) $^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-$ for set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$).

average probe current. Also, $(^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB})^{\text{edc}}$ does not pass through the origin (intercept = 137 ± 74 ppm CO_2), whereas $(^{12}\text{C}^-/^{18}\text{O}^-)^{\text{edc}}$ does (intercept = 8 ± 77 ppm CO_2). Glasses <400 ppm CO_2 are consistently offset to higher $(^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB})^{\text{edc}}$ than their CO_2 concentration suggests (Figure 4.14a). This implies these low carbon analyses have elevated $^{12}\text{C}^-$ counts due to carbon contamination. This carbon contamination does not appear

to affect high carbon analyses as the carbon contamination is a smaller proportion of the measured $^{12}\text{C}^-$.

Set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) used a small pre-raster size ($15 \times 15 \mu\text{m}^2$) and therefore contained high levels of carbon contamination. This explains the offset of low CO_2 glasses and possibly the scatter, if contamination was variable during analysis (Figure 4.14a). Unfortunately, no blank material (e.g., olivine) was measured during this session, hence no blank-correction can be performed. Also, the calibration curve is incorrect because CO_2 concentrations used do not equal the CO_2 concentration at the time of measurement (i.e., CO_2 in the glass + CO_2 of the contaminant). Using the $(^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB})^{\text{edc}}$ of the lowest carbon glass measured (ETNA15 = 51 ± 19 ppm CO_2 , Table 5.6) provides a maximum, although overestimate, of the contamination. Comparing this value of $(^{12}\text{C}^-/\text{PB})^{\text{edc}}$ to ETNA32 (4628 ± 256 ppm CO_2 , Table 4.10), which due to its high carbon concentration will be least effected by carbon contamination, gives a maximum carbon contamination of 110 ppm CO_2 . Set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) used a large pre-raster size ($30 \times 30 \mu\text{m}^2$) and therefore had low levels of contamination. This is confirmed by the intercept being close to the origin and the low carbon concentration calculated for Rangitoto olivine (13 ± 1 ppm CO_2).

Carbon isotope ratio

For calibrating the carbon isotope ratio, the average, standard deviation, and standard error of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for ALV981-R23, ETNA32, ETNA24, and ETNA36 collected using $(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)^{\text{edc}}_{\text{sample}}$ during both set-ups was calculated. A weighted (on the standard error of $(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)^{\text{edc}}_{\text{sample}}$) least squares regression was then calculated against independently constrained $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Figures 4.15 and 4.16a). For set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$), there is a good correlation (adjusted $R^2 = 0.91$), whereas for set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) they are less well correlated (adjusted $R^2 = 0.72$). Unfortunately, as set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) contained contamination, this correlation is fortuitous rather than real. Figure 4.16b shows the difference in $(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)^{\text{edc}}_{\text{sample}}$ (set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) – two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$), i.e., contaminated – uncontaminated analysis) between the two set-ups against carbon concentration. As the external drift calibration was against ETNA32, the point at 4629 ppm CO_2 is 0 by default. The standards with lower carbon concentration were lighter for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) (negative on Figure 4.16b), consistent with being contaminated by something isotopically lighter.

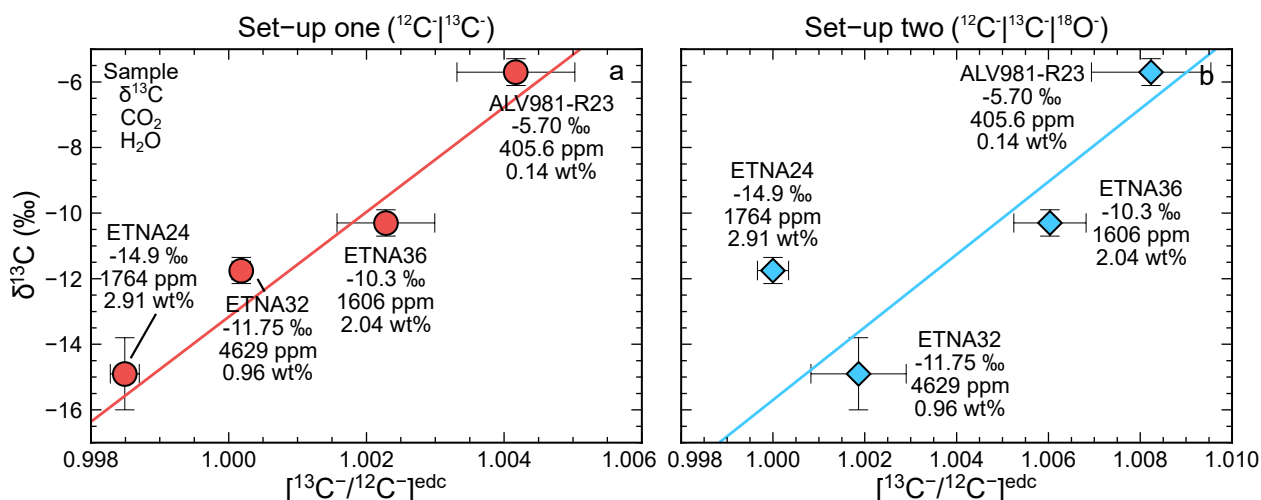


Figure 4.15: SIMS-1270 calibration curves for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ against external drift-corrected $(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)^{\text{edc}}_{\text{sample}}$ for set-up (a) one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) and (b) two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$).

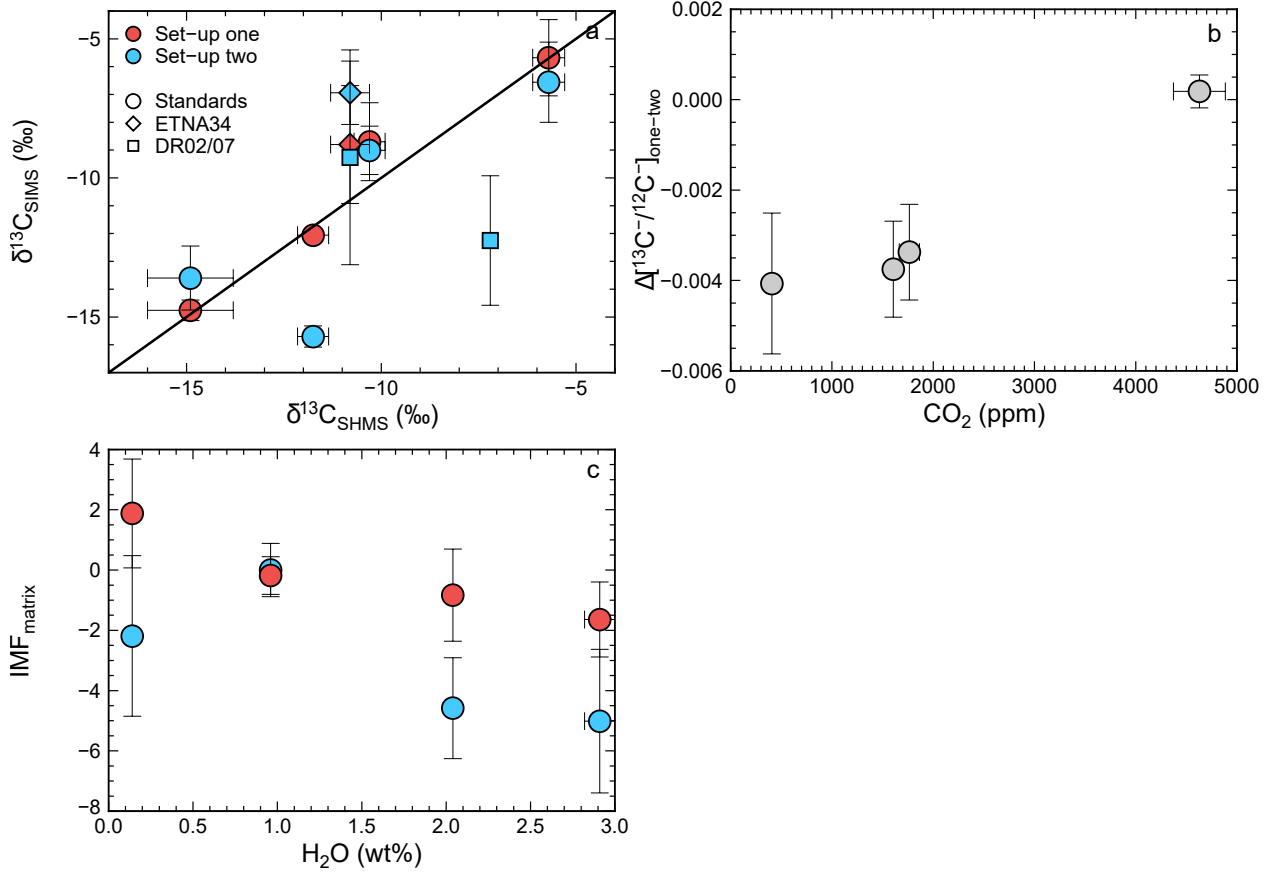


Figure 4.16: (a) Comparison of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ derived from set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$, red) and two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$, blue) for standards (circles), including secondary standards ETNA34 (carbon-rich, diamond), and CH97DR02 and CH98DR07 (carbon-poor, squares); (b) difference between external drift-corrected $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) and two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) against CO_2 concentration; and (c) modified instrumental mass fractionation factor due to the matrix ($\text{IMF}_{\text{matrix}}$) for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$, red) and two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$, blue) against H_2O concentration.

The calibration curve for set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) implies there is a matrix effect as there is not a simple linear correlation between $(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)_{\text{sample}}^{\text{edc}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. The main difference in composition between the glasses is H_2O concentration, ranging from 0.14–2.91 wt% H_2O (Tables 4.10 and 4.11). The instrumental mass fractionation (IMF) is a measure of the isotopic fractionation due to the sputtering process and measurement of the ions (e.g., Hauri et al., 2002). It is calculated as the ‰ deviation of the raw isotopic ratio in δ -notation (i.e., raw $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ converted to δ -notation) compared to the known δ value (Section A.1). As there was external drift, IMF is dependent on the ion probe set-up. To isolate potential matrix effects, a modified IMF is calculated using $(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)_{\text{sample}}^{\text{edc}}$, where the δ -value is calculated relative to ETNA32. This is then shifted to be relative to VPBD:

$$\text{IMF}_{\text{matrix}} = [((^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)_{\text{sample}}^{\text{edc}} - 1) \cdot 1000] - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{ETNA32}} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{sample}} \quad (4.10)$$

where $\text{IMF}_{\text{matrix}}$ is the IMF excluding the instrument drift; $(^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-)_{\text{sample}}^{\text{edc}}$ is the externally drift-corrected $^{13}\text{C}^-/^{12}\text{C}^-$ of the sample, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{ETNA32}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{sample}}$ is the known carbon isotope ratio in δ -notation of ETNA32 and the sample from SHMS, respectively. This is plotted against H_2O concentration in Figure 4.16c, where higher H_2O concentrations have a larger ‰ variation than low H_2O concentration, but the

errors are large. Hauri et al. (2002) found no effect of H_2O concentration for andesites for a similar range in H_2O concentration (1.09–3.70 wt% H_2O). Additionally, the major element compositions of the glasses are different (Tables 4.10 and 4.11), which may contribute. Hauri et al. (2002) found a 6 ‰ variation between basaltic and andesitic glasses, but the variation in the glass composition here is much smaller. With the glasses available, it is not possible to completely resolve whether a correction for H_2O is necessary during calibration. The residual standard error for set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) is 0.07 ‰, which is much smaller than the standard error for repeat analyses, hence for now the potential matrix effects of H_2O and major element chemistry are not included.

Contamination correction

It may be possible to correct the measured carbon isotope ratios for the background carbon which contaminated analyses collected using set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$). Excluding the standards, four glasses were analysed during both set-ups (ETNA12–ETNA14 and ETNA34, Tables 4.10 and 5.6). Assuming the contamination was 110 ppm CO_2 (maximum value from Section 4.3.5), the carbon isotope ratio of the contaminant can be calculated by mass balance:

$$\delta_c = \frac{\delta_1 \cdot (C_c - C_g) + \delta_2 \cdot C_g}{C_c} \quad (4.11)$$

where δ_c , δ_1 , and δ_2 are the carbon isotope ratios in δ -notation for the contaminant and the glass during set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$, contaminated) and two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$, uncontaminated), respectively; and C_c and C_g are the carbon concentration of contaminant and glass, respectively. Using ETNA12–ETNA14 and ETNA34 gives a value of -34 ± 10 ‰. The value for Rangitoto olivine is -54 ± 40 ‰; the very large errors are due to the very low counts on $^{13}\text{C}^-$. A contaminant of 110 ppm CO_2 and -34 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ changes the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ by 1 ‰ if $\text{CO}_2 < 2000$ ppm. Hence analyses using set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) with $\text{CO}_2 > 2000$ ppm will not have been changed substantially. Unfortunately, most of the glasses use for calibration have $\text{CO}_2 < 2000$ ppm, and hence will have been affected by contamination, which will affect quantification.

4.3.7. Precision, accuracy, and spatial resolution

Count rates at the start of the analysis were $\sim 10^1$ and $\sim 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \cdot \text{nA}^{-1} \cdot \text{ppm}^{-1}$ for $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$, respectively, compared to $\sim 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1} \cdot \text{nA}^{-1} \cdot \text{ppm}^{-1}$ using $^{12}\text{C}^+$, although they did decline over time. Hence, carbon as a negative ion is required for carbon isotope analysis. For an analysis, total counts on a species is:

$$^{12}\text{C}_T^- = t \cdot \sum_1^n ^{12}\text{C}^- \quad (4.12)$$

where $^{12}\text{C}_T^-$ are the total $^{12}\text{C}^-$ counts during the analysis; time is the count time on $^{12}\text{C}^-$; and $\sum_1^n ^{12}\text{C}^-$ is the sum of the $^{12}\text{C}^-$ over n cycles in counts per second. The same can be calculated for $^{13}\text{C}^-$. As the count rate declines with time this cannot be used to predict the total counts for longer analyses. This also cannot be extended to different probe currents, as the rate of decline in counts is related to the rate of sputtering. This relates to how far the sample has been drilled into, and therefore probably probe current.

For set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) (Table 4.12), $^{12}\text{C}_T^-$ per ppm $\text{CO}_2 \approx 4400$ and ≈ 440 for $^{13}\text{C}_T^-$; whereas for set-up

two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) (Table 4.13) $^{12}\text{C}_T^-$ per ppm $\text{CO}_2 \approx 1600$ and ≈ 140 for $^{13}\text{C}_T^-$. Hence, the precision on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for a single analysis on a 4000 ppm CO_2 glass is ~ 8 and ~ 13 ‰ for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) and two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$), respectively. For 100 ppm CO_2 , the precision on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is ~ 50 ‰ for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) compared to ~ 80 ‰ for set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$). Therefore, many repeat analyses are required to get good precision on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ on carbon-poor glasses. For example, to achieve 5 ‰ precision $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ requires ~ 3 or ~ 7 analyses for 4000 ppm CO_2 for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) and two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$), respectively, but ~ 90 or ~ 300 for 100 ppm CO_2 . For set-up two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$), doubling the number of cycles only increases the counts by a factor 1.5, hence a simply longer analysis time does not help. The difference in set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) and two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$) is the addition of oxygen, which results in a significantly longer analysis time (10 and 22.5 s per cycle for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) and two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$), respectively) and proportionally less time spent on ^{13}C (60 and 37 % of the analysis time for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) and two ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-|^{18}\text{O}^-$), respectively).

SIM and SEM (Figures 4.12 and 4.17a) images of the analysis pits can be used to estimate the spatial resolution of the analysis. The physical pit size is larger than the actual region from which ions were collected (Figure 4.9), hence this provides a maximum estimate of spatial resolution. For both set-ups, the analysis pit was $\sim 20 \times 15 \mu\text{m}^2$. EDS-SEM image of Cs reveals a large area contaminated after analysis (Figure 4.17b), which will affect the ionisation yield. Hence, subsequent analyses in the same region of glass should be conducted $> 30 \mu\text{m}$ from the centre of previous analysis pits.

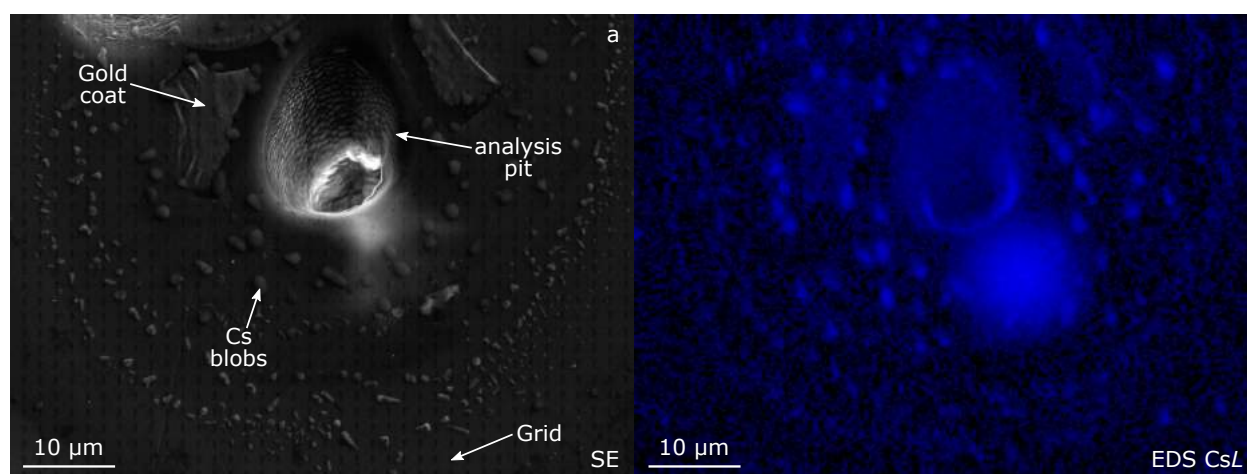


Figure 4.17: SEM images of a SIMS analysis pit created using set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-|^{13}\text{C}^-$) (Table 4.12): (a) secondary electron (SE) image showing the analysis pit (terraced hole) surrounded by blobs of Cs, where the gold coat has been ripped up at the sides of the pit due to the incoming Cs^+ beam (from top of image) and the darker grid pattern observable over the whole image is due to EDS mapping; and (b) energy dispersive spectrometry (EDS) map of CsL showing the blobs observable in (a) are Cs (high Cs, blue) and the area opposite where the Cs^+ hits the sample is elevated in Cs (high Cs, blue circular region).

4.4. Implications for analysing single melt inclusions

Analysis of single melt inclusions for carbon isotope ratios requires high: (1) precision (~ 1 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) as the differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in natural samples are small; (2) accuracy so that data can be reliably compared between sessions; and (3) spatial resolution (~ 20 – $30 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter analytical area) as melt inclusions are small.

A low carbon background is critical, which is related to carbon in the analytical chamber and on the

surface of the sample. To reduce carbon in the analytical chamber, all samples were co-mounted in indium. The mount included all standard material and a material to monitor the carbon background (e.g., olivine). Although not done here, the mount should also include a material to help align the primary and electron beam (e.g., Monastery ilmenite). The mount was pumped down in the airlock overnight before being moved to the analysis chamber, where it remained for the rest of the analytical time as all samples were co-mounted. The carbon background reached acceptable levels after two days of being in the analytical chamber. The vacuum was further improved by using a Ti-sublimator, although a cryo-pump may also improve the background. To minimise the effect of carbon on the sample surface, a large pre-raster area was used (e.g., $30 \times 30 \mu\text{m}^2$ for a $\sim 15 \times 20 \mu\text{m}^2$ analysis area was sufficient in this study). A pre-raster time of 120 s was sufficient as longer pre-raster times did not show improvement on the carbon background. A blank (e.g., olivine) was measured at least twice a day to check the carbon background was low enough and constant.

A Cs^+ primary ion beam, plus electron flood gun, were used to generate secondary ions because the carbon yield as a negative ion (C^-), rather than positive ion (C^+), is far greater. To analyse a single melt inclusion at a reasonable precision will require modifications to the above routines to collect enough counts on $^{13}\text{C}^-$. A dual routine, where the magnet is centred on $^{18}\text{O}^-$, but $^{18}\text{O}^-$ is not actually analysed, would allow accurate peak alignment on low carbon samples. If the carbon concentration is required, the analysis could be split into two sections. Firstly, just $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{18}\text{O}^-$ are collected for a few cycles. Secondly, $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$ are collected in the same pit for many cycles. Analysing $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$ in multi-collector mode removes wait times and increases the proportion of time spent collecting $^{13}\text{C}^-$ to 100 %. This will be the only way to analyse single melt inclusions.

Figure 4.18 shows the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ‰ precision based on $^{13}\text{C}^-$ counts against concentration for a 60 mins analysis at various beam currents, using an approximate $^{13}\text{C}^-$ count rate of $0.08 \text{ CPS} \cdot \text{nA}^{-1} \cdot \text{ppm}^{-1}$ of CO_2 . Beam currents of 5–7 nA were used in this study, but higher beam currents will be required to improve the accuracy, although the effect this has on analysis pit size and depth, and fractionation during analysis will have to be investigated. Longer analyses than 60 mins will also affect analysis pit depth, and hence fractionation during analysis, but will improve precision. Using a 20 nA beam current gives a 5 ‰ error on $\text{CO}_2 > 700 \text{ ppm}$, or 2 ‰ on $\text{CO}_2 > 2000 \text{ ppm}$. Although this is not precise enough to infer initial carbon composition during closed-system degassing, it should be able to estimate the initial carbon concentration or isotope ratio during open-system degassing (Figure 1.7). It should also be able to discern between closed- and open-system, and equilibrium or kinetically-driven, degassing (Figure 1.7). Improvements in detector efficiency will be required to further improve the precision.

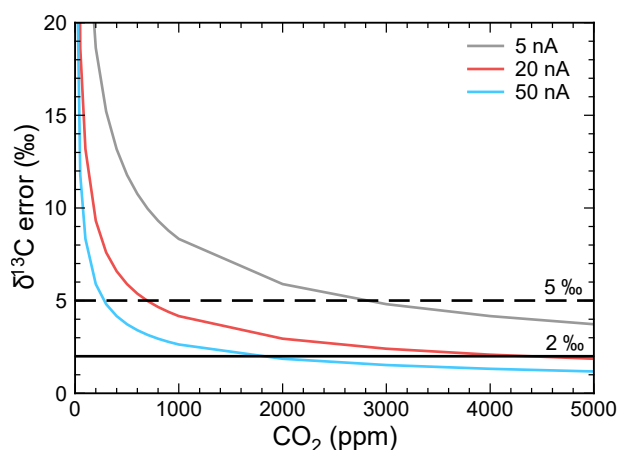


Figure 4.18: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ‰ precision based on an approximate $^{13}\text{C}^-$ count rate of $0.08 \text{ CPS} \cdot \text{nA}^{-1} \cdot \text{ppm}^{-1}$ of CO_2 for different beam currents. A $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ precision of 2 and 5 ‰ are shown using horizontal solid and dashed lines, respectively.

Chapter 5

Stable isotope fractionation during closed-system degassing in the system basalt-H₂O-CO₂

Author contributions and declaration: E.C. Hughes made the experimental capsules with the help of R.A. Brooker. Glasses were synthesised by R. Balzer. All data were collected by E.C. Hughes (with the help of J. Craven and R. Hinton for SIMS), except TCEA which was collected by I. Bindemann. E.C. Hughes interpreted and processed the data with the help of J.D. Blundy, H.M. Mader, G. Kilgour, and R.A. Brooker.

ABSTRACT

Stable isotope fractionation of volatiles during degassing provides a tool for constraining the bulk volatile composition of magmas, and their degassing style, prior to eruption. Interpreting stable isotope data from volcanic products requires knowledge of the isotope fractionation factor between exsolved fluid and silicate melt. Currently, experimental data on fractionation factors for carbon and hydrogen are not available for mixed $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2$ fluids, which are critical for interpreting data from arc volcanoes. This study simulates experimentally closed-system degassing in the system basalt- $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2$. The concentration and isotope ratio of carbon and hydrogen in the quenched glass of variably degassed melts is analysed to determine the fractionation factor of carbon and hydrogen. The experimental approach is fraught with difficulty and two issues compromise the veracity of the measured data. First, H_2 infiltration during the experiment causes the hydrogen composition to change throughout the run, such that the measured fractionation factor between fluid and melt is unlikely to represent equilibrium. Second, carbon contamination during preparation of the starting powders, and subsequent SIMS analysis of run products, creates uncertainties when determining the fractionation factor. Despite these setbacks, these experimental results provide a valuable benchmark for future studies of stable isotope fractionation between $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2$ fluids and melts and reveal a future methodology to address the problems encountered.

5.1. Introduction

Constraining the initial dissolved volatile concentration, especially of carbon, for magmas is still difficult even using melt inclusions, due to the low solubility of carbon in silicate melts (e.g., Fine and Stolper, 1986). Any degassing that precedes crystallisation and entrapment of melt inclusions leads to an underestimate of the original magmatic carbon. Stable isotope fractionation of volatiles during degassing potentially provides a method for reconstructing the initial volatile concentration of magmas (Section 1.4). By analysing a suite of variably degassed glasses (e.g., groundmass glass or melt inclusions) or gases (e.g., vesicles, fluid inclusions, and volcanic gases) for concentration and isotope ratio, the initial volatile composition and the degassing style can be inferred (e.g., Aubaud et al., 2004; Barry et al., 2014; Gennaro et al., 2017; Gerlach and Taylor, 1990; Hauri et al., 2002; Macpherson and Matthey, 1994; Newman et al., 1988; Paonita et al., 2012). To use these data in this way, the isotopic fractionation factor of the volatile species between the exsolved fluid and the melt must be known.

5.1.1. The fractionation factor

The fractionation factor describes the direction and magnitude of stable isotope fractionation. There are multiple ways to define the fractionation factor (Section A.2) and here the Δ -notation will be used, defined as:

$$\Delta_{f-m} = \delta_f - \delta_m \quad (5.1)$$

where Δ_{f-m} is the isotopic fractionation factor between exsolved fluid and co-existing melt, and δ_f and δ_m are the isotopic ratios in δ -notation (Section A.2) of the exsolved fluid and the melt, respectively. As the behaviour of both carbon and hydrogen during degassing are investigated, the volatile of interest will be indicated using a superscript (e.g., Δ_{f-m}^C for carbon and Δ_{f-m}^H for hydrogen). The notation Δ_{f-m} is used where the speciation of the volatile (e.g., if carbon is present as carbonate ion, CO_3^{2-} , or molecular carbon dioxide, CO_2) in the melt and exsolved fluid is unknown. The composition of the melt may be substituted for m if it is known (e.g., $\Delta_{f-\text{rhyolite}}$ is the fractionation factor between fluid and rhyolite melt). If the speciation of the volatile in the exsolved fluid and/or melt is known, it will be substituted for 'f' or 'm' in the subscript. For instance, $\Delta_{\text{CO}_2-\text{CO}_3^{2-}}^C$ is the fractionation factor for carbon between molecular carbon dioxide in the exsolved fluid and carbonate ion in the melt; or $\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{rhyolite}}^H$ is the fractionation factor for hydrogen between molecular water in the exsolved fluid and hydrogen of unknown speciation in the rhyolite melt.

Stable isotope fractionation can occur under equilibrium conditions or be kinetically-driven. These two end-member processes are the extreme cases and give rise to different Δ_{f-m} , although intermediate scenarios are also possible. During degassing, equilibrium conditions will be favoured for fast diffusing species at high temperatures in low viscosity magmas (e.g., hydrous basalts) if the magma resides at certain conditions (e.g., pressure and temperature) for some time; whilst kinetic conditions will be favoured for slowly diffusing species at lower temperatures in high viscosity magmas (e.g., anhydrous rhyolites) when the magma is quickly ascending (e.g., Pichavant et al., 2018).

During kinetically-driven degassing, the exsolved fluid becomes enriched in the lighter isotope, and hence the melt is enriched in the heavier isotope, therefore $\Delta_{f-m} < 0$. This is because volatile molecules containing

the lighter isotope will exsolve prior to those containing the heavier isotope, as they will have weaker bonds and higher diffusivities. The magnitude of Δ_{f-m} will depend on the process that is controlling the rate of degassing. For instance, Aubaud et al. (2004) assumed a Graham-type law to approximate degassing, which states that the rate of diffusion of a gas through a hole is inversely proportional to the square root of its mass (Graham, 1846). In this case the isotopes will be fractionated according to:

$$\alpha_{f-m} = \sqrt{\frac{M_1}{M_2}} \quad (5.2)$$

where α_{f-m} is the α fractionation factor (Section A.2 and Equation A.2), and M_1 and M_2 are the molecular masses of the lighter and heavier isotopes, respectively. A more rigorous approach was taken by Watson (2017), who investigated kinetically-driven isotopic fractionation during bubble growth. Volatile species should isotopically fractionate during bubble growth as there is an isotopic mass effect on the rate of diffusion in silicate melts (Richter et al., 2009, 2008, 2003, 1999; Watkins et al., 2009), even for relatively heavy volatiles such as Cl (Fortin et al., 2017). The magnitude of fractionation will depend on the bubble growth rate, volatile diffusivity, and relative diffusivities of the isotopes. Using the measured relative diffusivities for ^6Li and ^7Li (Richter et al., 2003) and ^{35}Cl and ^{37}Cl (Fortin et al., 2017), gave maximum Δ_{f-m} of $\Delta_{f-m}^{\text{Li}} \approx -27 \text{ ‰}$ and $\Delta_{f-m}^{\text{Cl}} \approx -3.5 \text{ ‰}$. Data on the relative diffusivities of carbon and hydrogen isotopes in silicate melts are not currently available, hence such calculations are not possible yet. Hence, the magnitude of Δ_{f-m} for carbon and hydrogen is unknown but it is always negative ($\Delta_{f-m} < 0$).

Conversely, equilibrium fractionation is controlled by the difference in bond energies in the exsolved fluid and melt, therefore Δ_{f-m} can be positive or negative. The equilibrium fractionation factor is dependent predominantly on temperature and the volatile speciation in both the exsolved fluid and the coexisting melt, and therefore on oxygen fugacity ($f\text{O}_2$).

5.1.2. Volatile speciation in the exsolved fluid and melt

For both kinetic and equilibrium isotopic fractionation, the speciation of the volatile dissolved in the melt and exsolved in the fluid is critical. Speciation will affect the diffusivity of the volatile species in the melt, such as for $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{mol}}$ and OH^- in silicate melts (e.g., Zhang and Behrens, 2000), which is important for isotopic fractionation during bubble growth (Watson, 2017). For equilibrium isotopic fractionation, speciation defines the bond energies in the melt and the exsolved fluid.

In the C-O-H system, the most important species in the fluid are H_2O , CO_2 , CO , H_2 , and CH_4 . Magmatic fluids do not contain free O_2 as the $f\text{O}_2$ is too low, and are rarely rich in CH_4 and H_2 because the $f\text{O}_2$ is too high (Carmichael, 1991; Holloway and Blank, 1994). Pressure, temperature, and fluid composition can also impact speciation, and species such as bicarbonate or carbonic acid in CO_2 -rich fluids at high pressures and low temperatures have been suggested (Abramson et al., 2017). In most magmatic fluids, the predominant species are CO_2 and H_2O .

$f\text{O}_2$ is again the predominant control on volatile speciation in the silicate melt, although pressure and temperature also effect the speciation of carbon and hydrogen in the melt (Silver and Stolper, 1989; Stolper, 1989). In oxidising conditions relevant to magmatic systems, carbon is predominantly dissolved as carbonate ions (CO_3^{2-}) or molecular carbon dioxide (CO_2^{mol}), whilst hydrogen is present as hydroxyl ions

(OH⁻) and molecular water (H₂O^{mol}) (Blank and Brooker, 1994; Stolper, 1982). CH₄ has been observed in reducing conditions (Mysen, 2016). Melt composition effects volatile speciation, with basalts containing predominantly CO₃²⁻ and rhyolites mostly CO₂^{mol} (Blank and Brooker, 1994). Hydrogen is present as both hydroxyl ions (OH⁻) and molecular water (H₂O^{mol}) in basaltic to rhyolitic melts and the proportion of these species varies significantly with total dissolved H₂O (H₂O^T) (Stolper, 1982).

5.1.3. Quantifying the fractionation factor

There are a variety of ways to quantify Δ_{f-m} . Equilibrium Δ_{f-m} can be calculated using the partition function of statistical mechanics, which describes the equilibrium statistical properties of the system (Urey, 1947). This requires knowledge of the molecular frequencies, which can either be measured spectroscopically or calculated (Urey, 1947). The molecular frequencies for simple species can be relatively easily measured, hence Δ_{f-m} for simple isotopic exchanges (e.g., CaCO₃ with CO₂) can be calculated over a wide range of temperatures. These can be applied to silicate melts by knowing the volatile speciation in the melt and assuming its behaviour is similar to that in the isolated case (e.g., Chacko et al., 2001). For instance, the equilibrium fractionation factor between CO₃²⁻ (as CaCO₃) and CO₂ was calculated up to 700 °C by Bottinga (1969) (Figure 5.1). At temperatures > 200 °C, $\Delta_{CO_2-CaCO_3}^C > 0$ (i.e., the CO₂ becomes enriched in ¹³C and the CO₃²⁻ in ¹²C) and has a maximum value of +2.8 ‰ at 500 °C. Extrapolating to magmatic temperatures (700–1400 °C) gives +1 to +2 ‰ (Mattey et al., 1990). Calculated fractionation factors for methane and graphite are much greater at these temperatures (700 °C, $\Delta_{CO_2-CH_4}^C = +10.0$ and $\Delta_{CO_2-C}^C = +7.7$ ‰), due to the different speciation of carbon. Richet et al. (1977) also calculated fractionation factors for various carbon-bearing molecules (e.g., CO₂, CH₄, and CO) up to 1300 °C (Figure 5.1). If the speciation of the volatile does not change between the phases (e.g., CO₂^{mol} in the melt and exsolved fluid), $\Delta_{CO_2-CO_2}^C$ will tend to ~0 ‰. Deines (2004) investigated different carbonates (e.g., Ca, Mg, Mn, Fe, and Na) and showed that the nature of the cation affects the magnitude of isotopic fractionation.

Natural volcanic samples can also be used to measure Δ_{f-m} . From Equation 5.1, the difference between the δ isotope ratio of the vesicles and the glass, assuming they represent the exsolved fluid and the melt respectively, from the same sample provide an estimate of Δ_{f-m} (e.g., Pineau and Javoy, 1983). The gas trapped in the vesicles can be released by crushing or lightly heating the sample, whilst the volatiles dissolved in the melt can be extracted using SHMS (Section 4.2.2). Alternatively, closed- or open-system degassing trends (Equations 1.1 and 1.4, respectively) can be fitted to a suite of variably degassed glasses or gases to calculate Δ_{f-m} (Section 1.4). The gas trapped inside vesicles may not represent the exsolved fluid present at equilibrium as it may have re-equilibrated post-entrapment (Mathez and Delaney, 1981; Watanabe et al., 1983), hence Δ_{f-m} using vesicle compositions may not be correct. To calculate Δ_{f-m} from suites of variably degassed glasses or fluids, the initial concentration and isotope ratio, and degassing style must be assumed (e.g., Figure 1.7). In these cases, the Δ_{f-m} measured could be equilibrium or kinetic. Natural samples provide direct evidence of isotopic fractionation during degassing, although it is difficult to know exactly what conditions the derived Δ_{f-m} is appropriate for.

Unfortunately, many early studies of carbon heated the glass in a single step, therefore a component of low temperature carbon contamination was included in the dissolved CO₂ (e.g., Section 4.1). Additionally, many studies did not crush the sample to remove CO₂ trapped in the vesicles (Des Marais, 1986). Even excluding these data, Δ_{f-m}^C from natural samples using the difference between glass and vesicles have a wide range

of values (-12 to +18 ‰), indicative of the different processes described above (Aubaud et al., 2004; Barry et al., 2014; Des Marais and Moore, 1984; Javoy and Pineau, 1991; Macpherson and Matthey, 1994; Matthey et al., 1989; Pineau and Javoy, 1983). Values from fitting degassing trends are more consistent (e.g., +2.3 to +4.3 ‰, Barry et al., 2014; Macpherson and Matthey, 1994), except for the single study using melt inclusions (~+20 ‰, Hauri et al., 2002).

There are less data available for hydrogen isotopic fractionation, but the values are more consistent (Figure 5.2). Newman et al. (1988) measured the isotope ratio and concentration of H₂O in bulk glass from Mono Crater, California, and modelled the degassing trend. To fit their data required $\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{OH}^-}^{\text{H}} = +51$ ‰ and $\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{H}} = -13$ ‰ with closed–followed by open–system degassing. Pineau et al. (1998) report $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}}$ of +24–39 ‰ from basaltic glasses containing 0.5–1.5 wt% H₂O.

The fractionation factor can also be constrained experimentally, using high-pressure high-temperature equipment to create volatile-saturated melts. Typically, the isotopic composition of the volatile dissolved in the melt and exsolved in the fluid are measured to determine $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}$. Unlike theoretically-determined $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}$, no assumption about the speciation of the volatile must be made, but the experimental conditions must be chosen to reflect those of interest. Experimental conditions (e.g., run times) can be chosen to ensure equilibrium is reached, unlike when measuring natural samples. Below is a review of the available experimental data on carbon and hydrogen fractionation factors in silicate melts.

Carbon

There are a variety of studies that have measured the fractionation factor for carbon in basaltic melts ($\Delta_{\text{f-basalt}}^{\text{C}}$), yielding inconsistent results with $\Delta_{\text{f-basalt}}^{\text{C}}$ ranging from +1 to +5 ‰ (Figure 5.1 and Table 5.1). There are broadly two sets of values: $\Delta_{\text{f-basalt}}^{\text{C}} \approx +2$ ‰ (Matthey, 1991; Matthey et al., 1990), which is similar to the theoretical calculations between CO₂ and CO₃²⁻ (Bottinga, 1969); and $\Delta_{\text{f-basalt}}^{\text{C}} \approx +4$ ‰ (Appora, 1998; Javoy et al., 1978; Trull et al., 1991), which is higher than would be expected if carbon is dissolved as carbonate ions in the melt. This difference is large enough to affect the interpretation of isotopic compositions in natural samples.

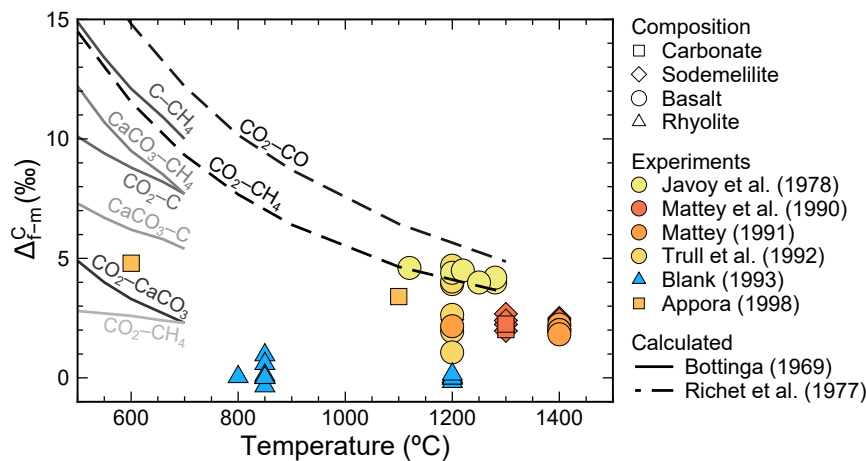


Figure 5.1: Calculated and experimental literature data for $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{C}}$. Symbol shape indicates glass composition and colour indicates study. Results from Mysen (2017, 2016) are not included as they are orders of magnitude larger than all other values.

Table 5.1: Summary of experimentally derived Δ_{f-m}^C for melts.

Melt composition	Dissolved species	Fluid	X _{CO₂}	T (°C)	P (kbar)	Δ_{f-m}^C (‰)	Reference
Tholeiite	CO ₃ ²⁻	CO ₂ (±H ₂ O)	0.5–1	1120–1180	7.0–8.4	+4.3 ± 0.3	Javoy et al. (1978)
MORB	CO ₃ ²⁻	CO ₂		1200	1–2	+3.1 ± 1.3	Trull et al. (1991)
Sodamelilite	CO ₃ ²⁻	CO ₂ (+H ₂ O)	~1	1200–1400	5–30	+2.2 ± 0.2	Mattey et al. (1990)
Carbonate	CO ₃ ²⁻	CO ₂	~1	1200–1400	20–30	+2.12 ± 0.1	Mattey et al. (1990)
Tholeiite	CO ₃ ²⁻	CO ₂ (+H ₂ O)	~1	1200–1400	5–20	+2.0 ± 0.2	Mattey (1991)
Rhyolite	CO ₂	CO ₂ (+H ₂ O)	0.99 ^c	800–1200	0.250–1.444	0.0 ± 0.2	Blank (1993)
(Li,Na,K) ₂ CO ₃	CO ₃ ²⁻	CO ₂	1	600–1100	<0.06	+3.4 to +4.8	Appora (1998)
Haploandesite ^a	H ₂ , H ₂ O, CH ₄	H ₂ , H ₂ O, CH ₄	<1	475–870	0.92–11.58	Large, <0 ^d	Mysen (2016)
Haploandesite ^b	H ₂ O, OH ⁻ , CO ₃ ²⁻ , HCO ₃ ⁻	CO ₃ ²⁻ , H ₂ O, HCO ₃ ⁻	<1	550–825	6.68–13.03	-100 to +116 ^c	Mysen (2017)

Notes: ^a indicates reduced and ^b oxidised conditions; ^c calculated using VolatileCalc (Newman and Lowenstern, 2002) from the CO₂ and H₂O concentrations in the glass; ^d α_{f-m}^C is not ~1, hence $\Delta_{f-m}^C \approx 1000 \cdot \ln \alpha_{f-m}^C$ is not appropriate (Section A.2).

Table 5.2: Summary of experimentally derived Δ_{f-m}^H for melts.

Melt composition	Dissolved species	Fluid	T (°C)	P (kbar)	H ₂ O (wt%)	Δ_{f-m}^H (‰)	Reference
Rhyolite	OH ⁻ , H ₂ O	H ₂ O			2.4–3	19–24	Taylor and Westrich (1985)
Aluminosilicate	OH ⁻ , H ₂ O	H ₂ O	870–1250	2	~7	6–23	Richet et al. (1986)
Rhyolite, albite-orthoclase	OH ⁻	H ₂ O	530–850	0.002–0.003	0.1–0.2	31–44	Dobson et al. (1989)
Rhyolite	OH ⁻ , H ₂ O	H ₂ O	850			39 (OH ⁻), 0 (H ₂ O)	Ihinger (1991)
Tholeiite	OH ⁻ , H ₂ O	H ₂ O	1250	3		20.3	Shilobreeva et al. (1991)
Basaltic-andesite	OH ⁻ , H ₂ O	H ₂ O	1200–1250	0.5–3	2–7	20–32	Pineau et al. (1998)
Si-Al-Na	OH ⁻ , H ₂ O	H ₂ O	300–800	2–15	>4	^a 100–700	Dalou et al. (2015); Mysen (2013a,b)

Notes: ^a Δ_{f-m}^H is not strictly appropriate if $\alpha_{f-m}^H \gg 1$, as is the case here (Section A.2).

Javoy et al. (1978) conducted experiments using oceanic tholeiitic basalt, in an internally heated autoclave at 1100–1200 °C and 7.0–8.4 kbar. Most of their experiments were anhydrous (i.e., proportion of CO₂ in the fluid, $X_{\text{CO}_2} \approx 1$), although one experiment had $X_{\text{CO}_2} \approx 0.5$. They used SHMS to measure the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the glass, where the CO₂ released between 400 and 1000 °C was used to represent the dissolved CO₂. Their experiments contained significant excess fluid, hence they calculated $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{C}}$ by subtracting the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the glass from that of the starting material, as for closed-system degassing $\delta_{\text{b}} - \delta_{\text{m}} \rightarrow \Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{C}}$ when $C_{\text{m}}/C_{\text{b}} \rightarrow 0$ (from Equation A.15). They measured $\Delta_{\text{f-basalt}}^{\text{C}} = +4.0$ to $+4.6$ ‰. As discussed by Matthey et al. (1990), the 400 °C step is likely to correspond to low temperature carbon contamination and CO₂ is typically still released above 1000 °C. Therefore, Javoy et al. (1978) are unlikely to have measured the actual dissolved CO₂ in their glass.

Trull et al. (1991) conducted experiments on MORB glasses at 1–2 kbar and 1200 °C in an internally heated furnace. As this is a conference abstract there is insufficient detail on the analytical details and method for calculating $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{C}}$, but they report $\Delta_{\text{CO}_2\text{-basalt}}^{\text{C}}$ of $+1.07$ to $+4.70$ ‰ with an average of $+3.1 \pm 1.4$ ‰. There were variable CO₂ concentrations within the glass, with ~150 ppm at the rim where Fe loss had occurred and ~180 ppm in the core where no Fe loss was observed for some experiments. This may imply equilibrium was not reached throughout the glass.

Matthey et al. (1990) conducted piston-cylinder experiments on sodamelilite (Sm) glass, which is a compositionally simple analogue for basalt, at 5–30 kbar and 1200–1400 °C. At <20 kbar, run products consisted of sodamelilite glass and fluid, and >20 kbar they consisted of sodamelilite glass, fluid, and carbonate (Cb). Minor H₂O was present in both the sodamelilite glass and the fluid but not quantified. Fractionation factors were calculated for $\Delta_{\text{CO}_2\text{-Sm}}^{\text{C}}$, $\Delta_{\text{CO}_2\text{-Cb}}^{\text{C}}$, and $\Delta_{\text{Cb-Sm}}^{\text{C}}$ by measuring the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the coexisting phases. Only the CO₂ released at high temperature was considered to be dissolved CO₂, resulting in $\Delta_{\text{CO}_2\text{-Sm}}^{\text{C}}$ of $+2.2 \pm 0.2$ ‰. Mass balance indicates some carbon may have escaped from the capsules through defects in the capsule walls, but this did not appear to affect the measured $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{C}}$.

Matthey (1991) conducted piston-cylinder experiments at 5–20 kbar and 1200–1400 °C on a MORB tholeiite, with minor (but unquantified) H₂O present in the glass and fluid. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the glass was calculated using only high temperature released carbon and some carbon was lost during unloading. The measured $\Delta_{\text{CO}_2\text{-basalt}}^{\text{C}}$ is $+2.0 \pm 0.2$ ‰, which shows no effect of pressure or temperature.

Appora (1998) conducted experiments at <60 bars and 600–1100 °C on (Li,Na,K)₂CO₃ and natrocarbonatite melts, where the dissolved species is carbonate ion. Only the abstract of the thesis is available, therefore there are limited experimental details. For 600 and 1100 °C, $\Delta_{\text{f-(Li,Na,K)}_2\text{CO}_3}^{\text{C}}$ is $+4.8$ and $+3.4$ ‰, respectively. For natrocarbonatite, the exact $\Delta_{\text{f-natrocarbonatite}}^{\text{C}}$ value is not reported, but it is intermediate between (Li,Na,K)₂CO₃ and calcite.

Experiments have also been conducted on other silicate compositions. Blank (1993) measured the $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{C}}$ between rhyolite melt and CO₂ fluid ($\Delta_{\text{f-rhyolite}}^{\text{C}}$) with minor, but quantified, H₂O. Experiments were run at 800–1200 °C and 0.250–1.444 kbar using René and TZM bombs with sealed and unsealed capsules. $\Delta_{\text{f-rhyolite}}^{\text{C}}$ was calculated by measuring the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the coexisting fluid and dissolved CO₂ in the glass using SHMS, only including CO₂ released at high temperature. From the sealed experiments, which she deems more trustworthy, $\Delta_{\text{f-rhyolite}}^{\text{C}} = 0.0 \pm 0.2$ ‰, consistent with CO₂^{mol} being the predominant dissolved species.

Mysen (2017, 2016) measured the fractionation factor between haploandesite (Ha) melt and a mixed

CO₂-H₂O fluid. Experiments were run at 475–850 °C and 0.92–11.58 kbar under reducing conditions, and 500–825 °C and 8–13 kbar under oxidising conditions, using an externally heated hydrothermal diamond cell. The carbon isotope ratios and speciation in the fluid and melt were measured *in situ* using Raman spectroscopy. For reducing conditions, the carbon species was CH₄ in the melt and fluid, and the fractionation factor was very large ($\alpha_{f-m}^C = 0.51$ –0.88, it is not appropriate to convert these to Δ_{f-m}^C because $\alpha_{f-m}^C \ll 1$, Section A.2). For oxidising conditions, the species were CO₃²⁻ and HCO₃⁻ in the melt and fluid and, again, very large fractionation factors ($\alpha_{f-m}^C = 0.91$ –1.12, which is -100 to +116 in Δ_{f-m}^C , although as α_{f-m}^C has values \ll and \gg 1 this conversion is not appropriate, Section A.2). In both cases the fractionation factor became more positive with increasing temperature. These values are one to two orders of magnitude larger than previously measured. Although the cause of this discrepancy is unclear, the experimental set-up in these studies is very different to previous studies. For instance, the Mysen (2017, 2016) experiments were conducted at lower temperatures. Also, these experiments measured the isotopic ratio and concentration *in situ*, whereas previous studies analysed the quenched products after the experiment had been conducted. Additionally, these studies used Raman spectroscopy to measure the isotope ratio, whereas previous studies used SHMS.

Deines (2004) produced a model to predict $\Delta_{CO_2-m}^C$ based on melt composition using the experimental data of Blank (1993), Matthey (1991), and Matthey et al. (1990) at 1200 °C. The model assumes dissolved carbon interacts with cations as carbonates. Additionally, carbon interacts with the Si/Al tetrahedra to account for differences between basalts and rhyolites. He produced an empirical relationship by fitting a regression to the experimental data such that:

$$\Delta_{CO_2-m}^C = 5.14 \cdot \left(\frac{\sum \text{cations}}{\text{Si} + \text{Al}} \right) + 0.86 \quad (5.3)$$

where cations (Mg, Fe, Mn, Ca, and Na), Si, and Al are molar quantities.

In summary, Δ_{f-m}^C depends on the composition of the melt (i.e., basalt or rhyolite) but the effect of H₂O has not been investigated. Additionally, the exact value of $\Delta_{f-basalt}^C$ is still debated. This excludes the studies of Mysen (2017, 2016) that use a very different experimental and analytical method to previous studies, and yield extremely high values for Δ_{f-m}^C .

Hydrogen

Under oxidising conditions, isotopic fractionation of hydrogen during degassing is more complicated than carbon as hydrogen is dissolved in silicate melts as both OH⁻ and H₂O^{mol} as discussed in Section 5.1.2. Hence, Δ_{f-m}^H (bulk, H₂O^T, fractionation factor) will be a combination of $\Delta_{f-OH^-}^H$ and $\Delta_{f-H_2O}^H$, dependent on their proportions in the melt, and it will change during the degassing process.

A big problem with measuring the hydrogen isotope fractionation factor experimentally is that hydrogen can easily diffuse in and out of experimental capsules (e.g., Richet et al., 1986). This will be discussed in detail in Section 5.2.1. There are a variety of studies that have measured Δ_{f-m}^H for silicate melt and, although there is spread in the data ($\Delta_{f-m}^H = 6$ –44 ‰, bar controversial Raman-based studies which are discussed later), there is less controversy in the values compared to carbon in basaltic melts. The range in Δ_{f-m}^H can be explained by variable H₂O^T in the glass (Figure 5.2), which implies that as the speciation in the melt changes during degassing Δ_{f-m}^H changes. All of these experimental studies suggest that $\Delta_{H_2O-OH^-}^H >$

$\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{H}} > 0 \text{ ‰}$. Hence $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}} > 0 \text{ ‰}$ resulting in the melt becoming isotopically lighter during equilibrium degassing and the exsolved fluid heavier. Table 5.2 contains an overview of the literature data, but a few studies are worth further discussion.

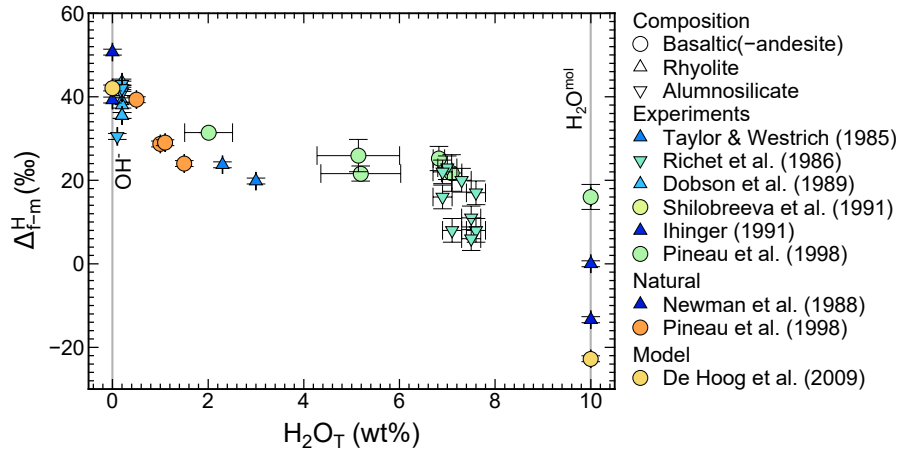


Figure 5.2: Experimental, natural, and modelled literature data for $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}}$. $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}}$ at 0 and 10 wt% H_2O are for pure OH^- and $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{mol}}$, respectively. Symbol shape indicates glass composition and colour indicates study. Results from Dalou et al. (2015) and Mysen (2013a,b) are not included as they are orders of magnitude larger than all other values.

To isolate $\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{OH}^-}^{\text{H}}$, Dobson et al. (1989) conducted experiments at 2 bar using quartz tubes filled with glass and excess H_2O in vertical furnaces at 530–750 °C for rhyolite and albite-orthoclase melt compositions. The glasses contained $<0.2 \text{ wt\% H}_2\text{O}^{\text{T}}$ therefore all H_2O was present as OH^- , and they calculated $\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{albite}}^{\text{H}} = 30\text{--}44 \text{ ‰}$.

Two studies have discussed the problems associated with hydrogen infiltration during the experiment. Richet et al. (1986) conducted IHPV experiments on aluminosilicate melt at 2 kbar between 870–1250 °C at high H_2O concentrations ($\sim 7 \text{ wt\%}$). Hydrogen diffused into their capsules during the experiment, and they conclude that isotopic equilibrium between the fluid and melt was achieved at a slower rate than H_2 diffusion into the capsule. They calculated $\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{melt}}^{\text{H}} = 6\text{--}23 \text{ ‰}$, attributing the spread in values to variable degrees of fluid-melt equilibrium, hence they consider the more positive $\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{melt}}^{\text{H}}$ as more representative. Pineau et al. (1998) used unsealed capsules exposed to excess H_2O in vertical gas-pressure vessels to try and avoid the problem of H_2 diffusion into the capsules during experiments. They used basaltic andesite melt, at 0.5–3 kbars and 1200–1250 °C. There were problems of disequilibrium along the capsule length, but they calculated $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}} = 20\text{--}32 \text{ ‰}$ for 2–7 wt% H_2O . They inferred that for basalts with very high H_2O , $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}}$ would tend to $16 \pm 3 \text{ ‰}$.

As for carbon, extremely large hydrogen fractionation factors have been measured by Dalou et al. (2015) and Mysen (2013a,b) in the $\text{SiO}_2\text{--Na}_2\text{O--Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{--H}_2\text{O}$ system using an externally heated diamond anvil cell and *in situ* Raman spectroscopy. Experiments were conducted at 300–800 °C and 2–15 kbars and they calculated $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}} = 100\text{--}700 \text{ ‰}$ (although $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}}$ is not strictly appropriate if $\alpha_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}} \gg$ or $\ll 1$ as is the case here, Section A.2). This is an order of magnitude larger than previous experiments, similar to the results carbon, and maybe due to the differences in the experimental and analytical set-up compared to previous studies.

De Hoog et al. (2009) use both experimental and natural data to create an empirical model of $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}}$ for basaltic andesite (BA) melts. The model includes the effects of total dissolved H_2O (big effect) and temperature (small effect). For 0–7 wt% H_2O at 900–1250 °C, the equation for bulk $\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{BA}}^{\text{H}}$ is:

$$\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O-BA}}^{\text{H}} = 44.53 \cdot \left(\frac{C_{\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{T}}}}{7.03} + 1 \right)^{-1.2} \quad (5.4)$$

where $C_{\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{T}}}$ is the $\text{H}_2\text{O}^{\text{T}}$ concentration (wt%). For instance, at 1250 °C $\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O-OH}^-}^{\text{H}} = 42.2$ ‰ and $\Delta_{\text{H}_2\text{O-H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{H}} = -23$ ‰.

In summary, $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}^{\text{H}}$ is dependent on the speciation of hydrogen in the melt, which depends on the total H_2O concentration and hence changes during degassing. No studies have carbon also present.

5.2. Methods

5.2.1. Approach and theory

For both carbon and hydrogen fluid-melt stable isotope fractionation, experiments are lacking for mixed volatile systems at crustal pressures. There are no experiments for carbon at pressures <5 kbar and for hydrogen at >3 kbar. Also, available data are somewhat scattered and often contradictory, yet these data are critical for understanding stable isotope fractionation in arc settings, which are rich in both H_2O and CO_2 and often have upper crustal reservoirs. Hence, this study aims to fill in this gap by conducting experiments with CO_2 - and H_2O -bearing basaltic melts at 1–7 kbar to constrain $\Delta_{\text{f-basalt}}^{\text{C}}$ and $\Delta_{\text{f-basalt}}^{\text{H}}$ under oxidising conditions.

We use a graphical approach to calculate $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}$ using the volatile concentration and isotope ratio of a suite of variably degassed (under equilibrium, closed-system conditions) glasses, whereby:

$$\delta_{\text{m}} = \left(\frac{\Delta_{\text{f-m}}}{C_{\text{b}}} \right) \cdot C_{\text{m}} + (\delta_{\text{b}} - \Delta_{\text{f-m}}) \quad (5.5)$$

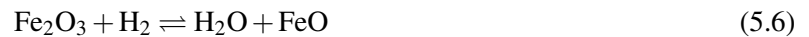
where δ_{m} and δ_{b} are the volatile isotope ratios of the melt and bulk system, respectively; C_{m} and C_{b} are the volatile concentrations of the melt and bulk system, respectively; and $\Delta_{\text{f-m}}$ is the volatile isotopic fractionation factor between the melt and exsolved fluid (Section A.3.1). The isotopic composition of the exsolved fluid is not measured in case it is modified after the experiment has been quenched. Mass balance between the bulk system and the melt is not used to estimate the composition of the exsolved fluid as this results in large errors as the error on concentration is far greater than that on the isotope ratio. To use this graphical approach, the experiments must represent equilibrium, closed-system degassing. Additionally, the volatile concentration and isotope ratio in the glass and of the bulk system must be accurately quantified. The concentration and isotope ratios of the initial starting powders are not used to represent the bulk volatile compositions (e.g., CaCO_3 for carbon and water for hydrogen) as there are various processes that could modify this after they are added to the starting material. These processes include carbon contamination prior to, and hydrogen infiltration during, experimental synthesis.

Various steps were taken to minimise carbon contamination. Starting powders used minerals (e.g., wollastonite, albite, and sanidine) as sources for Ca, Na, and K instead of carbonates (Section 5.2.2). This avoids a decarbonation step to remove the carbon, which may leave behind small amounts of carbon with an incredibly light isotopic signature due to the open system fractionation that would occur during decarbonation. Solvents such as acetone and ethanol were avoided during grinding, which may also add

organic (isotopically light) carbon. Instead water was used, where evaporation was aided using a heat lamp. Glasses were synthesised in an internally heated pressure vessel (IHPV, Section 5.2.4), which does not contain a graphite furnace thereby avoiding carbon infiltration into the capsule from the furnace, which changes both carbon concentration and isotope ratio (Brooker et al., 1998). The largest source of carbon contamination is CO₂ adsorption onto the surface of glasses and powders, which is difficult to prevent unless all materials are stored and loaded in an inert, carbon-free atmosphere. This causes carbon addition and changes to the isotope ratio between the time that the starting powders were created and loaded into the capsules. All glasses used to create the starting powders, except for albite, were large pieces prior to crushing, to reduce the surface area available for adsorption.

H₂O can also adsorb onto the surface of powders, which may cause errors in weighing when preparing the starting powders and add additional H₂O. Hence, components to make the starting powders were dried in an oven (except MgO which was heated in a furnace at 1000 °C then kept in a desiccator) prior to weighing. Starting powders were also dried in an oven prior to loading into the capsule. Additionally, hydrogen (as H₂) can diffuse through the capsule wall during the experimental run, which will change the concentration and isotope ratio of the bulk hydrogen in the system (e.g., Richet et al., 1986). Ideally, a pure Au capsule would be used, because of the slow diffusivity of hydrogen in Au, but the melting point is too low (1064 °C at 1 atm with a PT slope of ~58 °C·GPa⁻¹, Akella and Kennedy, 1971). Instead AuPd capsules are used, which have a higher melting point. Unfortunately, Fe forms an alloy with AuPd which changes the Fe concentration of the glass (e.g., Barr and Grove, 2010; Kawamoto and Hirose, 1994), leading to redox changes that can in turn drive H₂ diffusion.

The H₂O concentration in the capsule changes in response to hydrogen fugacity (f_{H_2}) gradients between the IHPV and the melt. For instance, if f_{H_2} is greater in the IHPV compared to the starting powders, H₂ will infiltrate into the capsule. Inside the capsule, H₂ will oxidise to form H₂O by reducing Fe₂O₃ in the melt, which increases Fe²⁺/Fe_T:



Additionally, Fe forms an alloy with AuPd causing Fe loss. This occurs by FeO in the melt undergoing disproportionation to Fe₂O₃ in the melt and Fe alloyed with the AuPd (e.g, Barr and Grove, 2010):

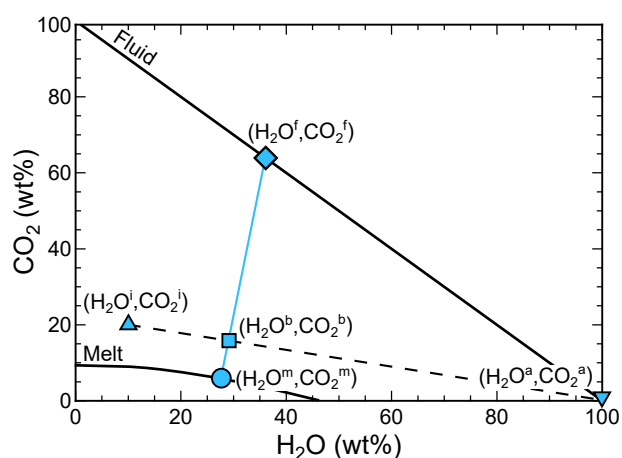


This reaction consumes FeO and produces Fe₂O₃, which oxidises the system (decreasing Fe²⁺/Fe_T) and drives the reaction in Equation 5.6. Equilibrium is achieved when the Fe oxidation state of the melt and the Fe concentration in the AuPd are equal to that imposed by the f_{O_2} of the system. This defines the amount of H₂O added via H₂ diffusion. If the f_{H_2} gradient is reversed (i.e., the capsule has a higher f_{H_2} than the IHPV), H₂O in the capsule reduces to H₂ to migrate through the capsule wall, releasing O₂. This oxidises FeO in the melt to Fe₂O₃ (decreasing Fe²⁺/Fe_T). If the initial Fe oxidation state of the melt is in equilibrium with the imposed f_{H_2} , the reactions in Equations 5.6 and 5.7 have no driving force to occur, hence H₂O addition is minimised. Therefore, the Fe²⁺/Fe_T of the starting powder was chosen to be similar to the intrinsic oxygen fugacity of the experimental apparatus, which is also appropriate for real melts. We

measure the Fe loss and reduction between the starting powder and the glass and use Equations 5.6 and 5.7 to calculate the amount of O_2 produced by the melt. This O_2 oxidises the infiltrating H_2 , and therefore corresponds to the H_2O added to the system.

Additionally, we use graphical tie-line analysis (GTLA), shown schematically in Figure 5.3 (e.g., Papale, 2005). The initial composition of the melt (H_2O^i, CO_2^i) is defined as the concentration of H_2O and CO_2 in the starting powder, whilst the added component (H_2O^a, CO_2^a) is pure H_2 (equal to pure H_2O when oxidised) infiltrating from the IHPV into the capsule. If the melt is H_2O saturated, the melt composition (H_2O^m, CO_2^m) will lie on an isobar. The exsolved fluid (H_2O^f, CO_2^f) is assumed to contain only H_2O and CO_2 as no other volatiles were added, and hence the exsolved fluid lies on a line connecting 100 wt% H_2O and 100 wt% CO_2 . The bulk H_2O and CO_2 of the system (H_2O^b, CO_2^b) must lie on a tie-line connecting the initial and added components, but also on the melt-fluid tie-line, hence the bulk volatile content lies at their intersection.

Figure 5.3: Schematic of graphical tie-line analysis (GTLA) to calculate the bulk volatile composition, where superscript *i* is the initial (the composition of the starting powder), *a* is the added (H_2 infiltrating into the capsule from the IHPV), *m* is the melt, *f* is the fluid, and *b* is the bulk volatile component. The straight, solid, black line are all possible fluid compositions when H_2O and CO_2 are the only volatiles present. The curved, solid, black line is an isobar (which has been grossly exaggerated in order that the melt and fluid composition can be shown on the same axes), where the composition of H_2O - CO_2 -saturated melt would lie. The straight, dashed, black line is the tie-line connecting the initial and added components. The straight, solid, blue line is the tie-line connecting the melt and fluid components.



The composition of the starting powders and the glass were characterised to calculate the bulk and dissolved volatile composition to allow calculation of the isotopic fractionation factor (Table 5.3). The initial composition of the system is determined by the weighed-in components during preparation of the starting powders (Section 5.2.2), although adsorption may alter this value. Additionally, the carbon concentration of the starting powders was measured using bulk pyrolysis to estimate initial carbon concentration (Section 5.2.3). The concentration of carbon and hydrogen of the exsolved fluid was measured by weighing the capsule after freezing/boiling the gases (Section 5.2.5). The dissolved volatile concentration in run product glasses was measured using SIMS (Section 5.2.7). The isotope ratio of carbon was measured using SIMS (Section 5.2.7) and of hydrogen using bulk pyrolysis (Section 5.2.6). The glass composition, especially Fe concentration and oxidation state, was measured using EPMA (Section 5.2.8). Figure 5.4 is a schematic of the capsule, showing the processes occurring during the experimental runs.

Table 5.3: Overview of techniques applied to starting powders, glasses, and fluids.

Technique	Phase	Variable
Weighing	Starting powder	Majors, minors, CO_2 , H_2O , and Fe^{2+}/Fe_T (Section 5.2.2)
	Fluid	CO_2 and H_2O (Section 5.2.5)
CSA	Starting powder	CO_2 (Section 5.2.3)
SIMS	Glass	CO_2 and H_2O (Section 4.2.2), $\delta^{13}C$ (Section 4.3.2)
TCEA	Glass	H_2O and δD (Section 5.2.6)
EPMA	Glass	Majors and minors (Section 2.5.3), Fe^{2+}/Fe_T (Section 3.3.2)

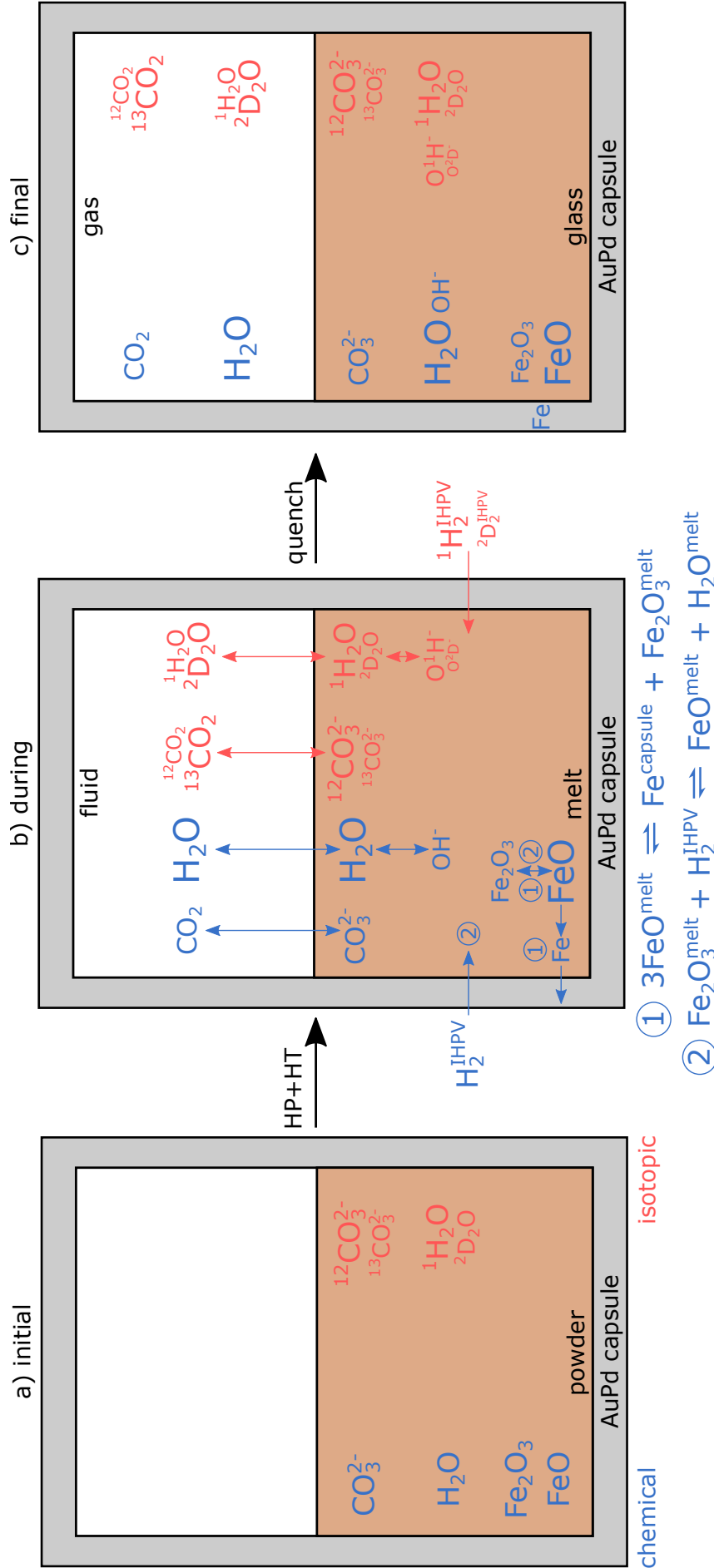


Figure 5.4: Schematic illustration of the capsule showing the chemical (blue) and isotopic (red) reactions occurring between the IHPV, AuPd capsule, melt, and fluid during glass synthesis. **(a)** Initial capsule containing the starting powder. **(b)** During glass synthesis, when the capsule is in the IHPV at high-pressure and high-temperature (HP+HT). The starting powder melts and volatiles exsolve into an additional fluid phase. H_2O is dissolved in the melt as both molecular H_2O and OH^- . The volatiles isotopically fractionate between the fluid and melt. H_2 infiltrates into the capsule from the IHPV, and the rate of diffusion through the capsule is different for ^1H and ^2D . FeO in the melt disproportionates into Fe , which forms an alloy with the AuPd capsule, and Fe_2O_3 (Reaction 1). Also, the infiltrating H_2 combines with Fe_2O_3 to produce FeO (Reaction 2). **(c)** The capsule is quenched, and the melt forms a glass, which is analysed.

5.2.2. Preparation of the starting powders

Starting powders were made with the compositions in Table 5.6, in multiple batches as outlined. To avoid a decarbonation step, starting powders were made of a mechanical mixture of albite, anorthite, sanidine, fayalite, wollastonite, SiO_2 , MnO , MgO , TiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 , and $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ powders. Additionally, water was used as a solvent during grinding in an agate mortar for 30 mins under a heat lamp. To try and minimise any flux of H_2 into or out of the capsule during the experiments, the ratio of fayalite to Fe_2O_3 in all starting powders was chosen to give a $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ of 0.5 to match the assumed intrinsic $f\text{O}_2$ imposed during the experiment. The mixture was dried overnight ($\sim 100^\circ\text{C}$) before powdered CaCO_3 was added either as Seaford Head Chalk (SHC, $+1.99 \pm 0.03\text{‰}$), Oka carbonatite calcite (OKA, $-5.43 \pm 0.02\text{‰}$) or a 50:50 mechanical mixture of the two ($-1.81 \pm 0.02\text{‰}$) (Section 4.2.1 and Table 4.2).

5.2.3. Carbon-sulphur analyser

As a method to check the weighed-in concentrations of CO_2 in the starting powders, the carbon concentration (and sulphur, although not reported) of the starting powders, and the albite powder, were measured using a carbon-sulphur analyser (CSA). Samples are melted at temperatures $>1800^\circ\text{C}$ to release all the carbon in the sample. The carbon is then oxidised to allow the concentration of CO_2 to be measured using infra-red spectroscopy. Unfortunately, this measures all the carbon in the sample, which for starting powders may include contamination after the batch was prepared. Powders are needed for CSA to ensure complete melting, hence starting powders and the albite powder were measured without further preparation.

Analyses were made using the ELTRA CS800 analyzer at the Institut für Mineralogie, Leibniz Universität Hannover, Germany. Prior to analysis, powders were dried in an $\sim 100^\circ\text{C}$ and the ceramic crucibles used for analysis were baked at $\sim 1200^\circ\text{C}$. Samples were weighed into a ceramic crucible, then chips of iron and tungsten were added to aid melting and oxidation of the sample during combustion. The ceramic crucible was placed in a sealed furnace and heated via an induction coil to melt the sample. Blank runs were performed with ceramic crucibles containing just iron and tungsten chips. Steel standards were used for calibration (Figure 5.5) and run throughout the session to check for instrument drift. As the technique involves complete release of CO_2 in the sample through combustion there should be no matrix effect, therefore steel standards can be used for glass analysis. Where possible, multiple analyses of a single starting powder were made to ensure reproducibility of the measurement.

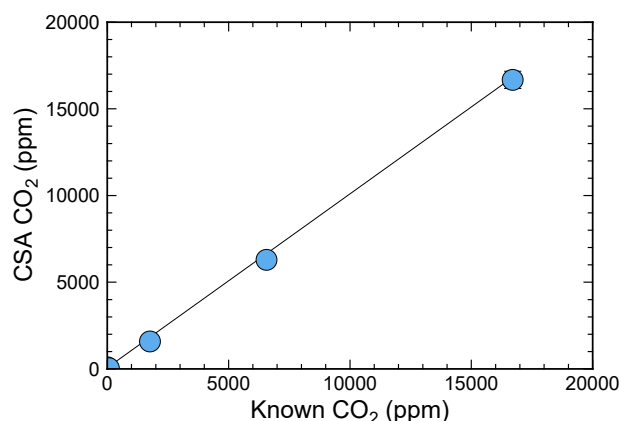


Figure 5.5: CSA calibration curve for CO_2 concentration using steel standards: 285-2 (66 ± 7 ppm CO_2), 281-1 (1759 ± 73 ppm CO_2), 92400-4010 (6559 ± 110 ppm CO_2), and 030-4 (16708 ± 147 ppm CO_2). Errors of one standard deviation are smaller than the symbols

5.2.4. Experimental synthesis of the glasses

The starting powders were dried overnight ($\sim 100^\circ\text{C}$) before being loaded into $\text{Au}_{80}\text{Pd}_{20}$ capsules, which were 3 mm in diameter by ~ 15 mm in length and contained ~ 50 mg of starting powder. Water was added as H_2O dispersed throughout the capsule via microsyringe, but H_2O concentration was measured based on weight rather than volume. The initial composition of the material in the capsules based on the weighed-in powders is given in Table 5.6. Capsules were flat welded shut at each end. Capsules were immersed in water at $\sim 50^\circ\text{C}$, then put in a $\sim 100^\circ\text{C}$ oven for ~ 10 minutes, to check for leaks.

Experiments were performed in the same IHPV (Blue) at the Institut für Mineralogie, Leibniz Universität Hannover, Germany, by R. Balzer. Experiments were run at 1250°C ($< 5^\circ\text{C}$ variation) and 1, 3, 5, or 7 kbar (< 0.02 kbar variation) using Ar gas as the pressurising medium (see Table 5.6 for details). Experiments lasted ~ 18 hours, except ETNA07 which was run twice: once at 7 kbar then again at 3 kbar, hence its total synthesis time was ~ 36 hours. Experiments were conducted under intrinsic IHPV $f\text{O}_2$ conditions, which range from NNO+2.6 (Schuessler et al., 2008) to NNO+3.5 (Berndt et al., 2002). Samples were quenched using a rapid-quench device at $\sim 150^\circ\text{C}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (Berndt et al., 2002).

After each experiment, the capsules were weighed and visually inspected to check for any leaks during the run. Capsules were opened under a binocular microscope and glass chips were selected for further analysis.

5.2.5. Volatile concentrations in the fluid

The concentration of volatiles in the exsolved fluid coexisting with the melt during the experimental run can be measured by analysing the fluid present in the capsule after the experiment. This assumes the composition of the exsolved fluid does not change composition after the quench (e.g., species reacting or precipitating). Visually, there was no evidence of precipitates (e.g., graphite) when the capsules were opened. Volatile concentrations are thought to be maintained, but isotope ratios may change (Mathez and Delaney, 1981; Watanabe et al., 1983), hence only the volatile concentration was measured. CO_2 and H_2O have different freezing and boiling temperatures, hence by cooling and heating the capsule to different temperatures, and piercing it to allow the gas to escape, the weight difference can be used to measure the mass of a fluid of certain composition.

The fluids in the capsule were assumed to be CO_2 and H_2O as these were the only volatile phases added to the starting powders. CO_2 has a much lower boiling point than H_2O , therefore capsules were frozen in liquid N_2 to freeze H_2O . Capsules were then pierced to release any CO_2 present as a vapour and reweighed. This cannot discriminate between CO_2 and N_2 (from the atmosphere when loading capsules), but the contribution of N_2 is thought to be small (Shishkina et al., 2010). Capsules were then put in a $\sim 200^\circ\text{C}$ oven for ~ 10 mins to evaporate any free water, then reweighed to measure the H_2O in the vapour phase. This could release H_2O dissolved in the glass, but no devitrification of the glass was observed. Weights were measured to ± 0.0001 g, which can result in large errors when there is little fluid present.

5.2.6. Thermal conversion element analyser

To measure the equilibrium isotope fractionation factor of hydrogen, the dissolved hydrogen concentration and isotope ratio of the glasses were measured. As a bulk technique, TCEA may also measure H_2O absorbed onto the surface or from surface contamination. A comparison of FTIR and TCEA by Dixon et al. (2017)

found good agreement between the two techniques implying this is not a significant issue, although a slight underestimate of TCEA compared to FTIR was observed, which may be due to incomplete extraction of H₂O. Hydrogen was extracted from the glass using single-step pyrolysis and its concentration and isotope ratio were measured using isotope ratio mass spectrometry.

Measurements were made by I. Bindeman at Department of Earth Sciences, University of Oregon, USA, using the method of Nolan and Bindeman (2013). Glass chips were crushed to aid melting, weighed to a precision of 10⁻⁶ g and folded into silver foil capsules for analysis. H₂O was extracted using a thermal combustion element analyser (TCEA). The released H₂O is transferred for concentration and isotope measurement to a large radius MAT253 10 kV gas source isotope ratio mass spectrometer. H₂O concentrations were calibrated using mineral standards (Table 5.4). The average accuracy (one standard deviation) of standards run during the analysis were 0.06 wt.% for H₂O and 0.9 ‰ for δD.

Table 5.4: Mineral standards used for TCEA.

Standard	Material	H ₂ O (wt%)	<i>s.d.</i>	δD (‰)	<i>s.d.</i>
NBS30 ^a	Biotite	3.5		-65.7	0.3
USGS57 ^b	Biotite	3.74	0.02	-91.5	2.4
USGS58 ^b	Muscovite	4.03	0.02	-28.4	1.6
<i>Notes:</i> Data from ^a Gonfiantini (1984) and ^b Qi et al. (2017). Errors, where available, of one standard deviation (<i>s.d.</i>) are in <i>italics</i> .					

5.2.7. Secondary ion mass spectrometry

SIMS (Chapter 4) was used to measure the volatile concentration and carbon isotope ratio dissolved in the glass, to quantify the carbon isotope fractionation factors. CO₂ and H₂O concentrations were measured as described in Section 4.2.2 for ETNA24 and δ¹³C was measured as described in Section 4.3.2.

5.2.8. Electron probe micro-analysis

All EPMA (Section 2.2) data were collected on the JEOL JXA 8530F Hyperprobe using the Probe for EPMA software at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, UK. Glass chips were mounted in epoxy then ground and polished to a ~1–3 μm finish. Samples were carbon coated (~15 nm thickness) for analysis. Major and minor element chemistry was analysed as described in Section 2.5.3, with the set-up shown in Table 5.5. Fe oxidation state was measured as described in Section 3.3.2.

Table 5.5: Analytical details for EPMA of ETNA glasses.

Spectrometer – Crystal				
1 – TAP	2 – TAP	3 – PETH	4 – LIFH	5 – PETL
SiK α (10/5)	NaK α (10/5)	CaK α (10/5)	FeK α (10/5)	KK α (10/5)
<i>BCR-2</i>	<i>BCR-2</i>	<i>BCR-2</i>	<i>BCR-2</i>	<i>Sanidine</i>
AlK α (10/5)	MgK α (10/5)	TiK α (10/5)	MnK α (10/5)	PK α (10/5)
<i>BCR-2</i>	<i>BCR-2</i>	<i>TiO₂</i>	<i>Mn metal</i>	<i>Durango apatite</i>

Notes: Elements in order of analysis from top to bottom, peak/background count times (s) in brackets, and primary standards under each element in *italics*, where BCR-2 is the USGS basaltic glass standard Columbia River Basalt. For each sample, 36 analyses on fresh areas of glass were averaged and no TDI correction was used. Compositions of the standards are in Tables 2.3 and 2.4.

5.3. Composition of the glass and fluid

Capsules did not gain or lose weight outside weighing error during the run and had convex shapes upon recovery. All capsules had small bubble imprints on the inner surface (Figure 5.6a), but the majority contained no bubbles within the glass itself (Figure 5.6b). Some of the capsules had large bubble imprints on the capsule walls, visible from the outside, and smooth glass interfaces clearly indicating the presence of a fluid (Figure 5.6a).

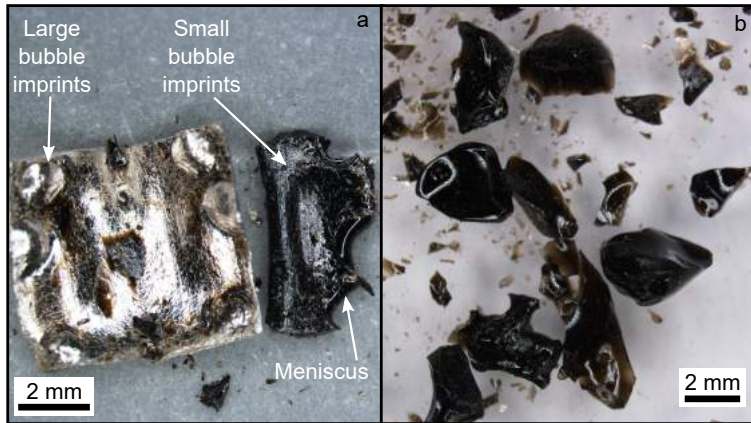


Figure 5.6: Example photographs of the capsules post-synthesis: (a) example of an opened capsule with small and large bubble imprints and the smooth surface of the meniscus between fluid and melt; and (b) example of the dark brown, bubble-free glassy shards typical of the run products.

All run products were dark brown and glassy with no evidence for crystals or microlites (Figure 5.6b). Magnetite nanolites were detected in some glasses using Raman spectroscopy (method is described in Section 6.3.2; results and discussion in Appendix F). Glass compositions are consistent between different starting batches, except ETNA01 which contains ~2 wt% MnO, instead of 0.20 wt%, assumed to be a weighing error. Glass compositions including volatile concentrations, isotope ratios, and Fe oxidation state; and fluid compositions are given in Table 5.6. Figure 5.7 shows the carbon and hydrogen concentrations and isotope ratios for the glass and fluid.

Table 5.6: Powder, glass, and fluid compositions for each experimental run.

Sample	ETNA01	s.d.	ETNA02	s.d.	ETNA03	s.d.	ETNA04	s.d.	ETNA05	s.d.	ETNA06	s.d.	ETNA07	s.d.
Batch	4		2		5a		5a		5a		5a		5a	
P (kbar)	3		3		3		7		7		7		7, 3	
T (°C)	1250		1250		1250		1250		1250		1250		1250	
SiO ₂	46.66	0.15	45.63	0.06	47.83	0.02	47.83	0.02	46.91	0.02	45.3	0.02	45.57	0.02
TiO ₂	1.75	0.10	1.71	0.04	1.75	0.01	1.75	0.01	1.72	0.01	1.66	0.01	1.67	0.01
Al ₂ O ₃	15.84	0.04	15.48	0.02	16.22	0.01	16.22	0.01	15.91	<0.01	15.37	<0.01	15.46	<0.01
Fe ₂ O ₃	5.75	0.10	5.52	0.04	5.75	0.01	5.75	0.01	5.64	0.01	5.45	0.01	5.48	0.01
FeO	5.08	0.07	4.92	0.03	5.17	0.01	5.17	0.01	5.07	0.01	4.9	0.01	4.93	0.01
MnO	0.29	0.10	0.19	0.04	0.2	0.01	0.2	0.01	0.2	0.01	0.19	0.01	0.19	0.01
MgO	5.85	0.10	5.68	0.04	5.89	0.01	5.89	0.01	5.77	0.01	5.58	0.01	5.61	0.01
CaO	10.55	0.08	10.24	0.04	10.73	0.02	10.73	0.02	10.52	0.01	10.16	0.01	10.22	0.01
Na ₂ O	3.34	0.01	3.26	<0.01	3.42	<0.01	3.42	<0.01	3.36	<0.01	3.24	<0.01	3.26	<0.01
K ₂ O	1.88	0.02	1.85	0.01	1.94	<0.01	1.94	<0.01	1.9	<0.01	1.84	<0.01	1.85	<0.01
P ₂ O ₅	0.62	0.05	0.56	0.02	0.59	0.01	0.59	0.01	0.58	0.01	0.56	0.01	0.56	0.01
H ₂ O	2.39	0.27	4.75	0.16	0		0		1.94	0.22	5.3	0.20	4.72	0.21
CO ₂ (ppm)	0		2010	167	5011	88	5011	88	4914	86	4746	83	4774	84
δ ¹³ C (‰)			-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	0.50	0.01	0.50	<0.01	0.50	<0.01	0.50	<0.01	0.50	<0.01	0.50	<0.01	0.50	<0.01
SiO ₂	48.88	0.11	49.47	0.14	48.25	0.10	49.10	0.12	48.26	0.11	47.47	0.13	47.68	0.10
TiO ₂	1.84	0.02	1.64	0.03	1.53	0.02	1.65	0.02	1.63	0.03	1.59	0.03	1.62	0.02
Al ₂ O ₃	17.06	0.07	17.23	0.05	16.83	0.07	17.02	0.07	16.74	0.06	16.65	0.06	16.67	0.06
FeO _T	8.61	0.08	9.62	0.08	9.48	0.08	9.75	0.08	9.79	0.07	9.70	0.08	9.75	0.08
MnO	1.92	0.04	0.27	0.02	0.30	0.03	0.28	0.03	0.28	0.02	0.27	0.02	0.27	0.02
MgO	5.41	0.04	5.84	0.05	5.74	0.05	5.92	0.06	5.82	0.05	5.70	0.05	5.75	0.06
CaO	7.04	0.04	6.89	0.04	6.53	0.05	6.85	0.04	6.72	0.04	6.66	0.04	6.66	0.03
Na ₂ O	3.92	0.07	4.00	0.06	3.75	0.07	3.99	0.06	3.86	0.06	3.63	0.07	3.69	0.06
K ₂ O	1.79	0.02	1.81	0.02	1.78	0.02	1.79	0.02	1.76	0.02	1.74	0.02	1.77	0.02
P ₂ O ₅	0.55	0.04	0.52	0.03	0.46	0.03	0.51	0.03	0.49	0.03	0.50	0.03	0.50	0.03
H ₂ O ^c	2.37	0.06	2.16	0.07	5.09	0.05	2.47	0.05	3.87	0.15	5.85	0.08	5.63	0.03
H ₂ O ^d	2.53	0.06	2.20	0.06	5.01	0.06	2.32	0.06	3.80	0.06	5.60	0.06	5.21	0.06
δD ^d (‰)	-128.4	0.9	-132.3	0.9	-126.6	0.9	-135.2	0.9	-132.1	0.9	-124.8	0.9	-127.9	0.9
CO ₂ ^c (ppm)	745	40	929	32	494	2	2862	47	2596	128	360	19	484	43
δ ¹³ C ^e (‰)	-24.7	2.8					-15.2	1.2	-13.3	0.7				
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	0.71	0.08	0.74	0.07			0.75	0.07	0.64	0.07	0.68	0.07	0.54	0.07
H ₂ O ^d (g)	-0.0001	0.0001	-0.0001	0.0001	-0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001	-0.0001	0.0001
CO ₂ ^d (g)	0.0002	0.0001	0.0004	0.0001	0.0005	0.0001	0.0004	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001	0.0012	0.0001	0.0012	0.0001

Table 5.6: Powder, glass, and fluid compositions for each experimental run *cont.*

Sample	ETNA08	s.d.	ETNA09	s.d.	ETNA10	s.d.	ETNA11	s.d.	ETNA12	s.d.	ETNA13	s.d.	ETNA14	s.d.
Batch	5a		5b		5c		3		5a		5a		5a	
P (kbar)	7		7		7		3		1		1		1	
T (°C)	1250		1250		1250		1250		1250		1250		1250	
SiO ₂	45.32	0.02	46.79	0.02	46.76	0.02	46.52	0.10	47.83	0.02	46.91	0.02	45.62	0.02
TiO ₂	1.66	0.01	1.71	0.01	1.71	0.01	1.68	0.06	1.75	0.01	1.72	0.01	1.67	0.01
Al ₂ O ₃	15.37	<0.01	15.87	<0.01	15.86	<0.01	15.8	0.03	16.22	0.01	15.91	<0.01	15.47	<0.01
Fe ₂ O ₃	5.45	0.01	5.63	0.01	5.62	0.01	5.69	0.06	5.75	0.01	5.64	0.01	5.48	0.01
FeO	4.90	0.01	5.06	0.01	5.06	0.01	5.06	0.05	5.17	0.01	5.07	0.01	4.94	0.01
MnO	0.19	0.01	0.20	0.01	0.20	0.01	0.19	0.06	0.20	0.01	0.20	0.01	0.19	0.01
MgO	5.58	0.01	5.76	0.01	5.76	0.01	5.75	0.06	5.89	0.01	5.77	0.01	5.62	0.01
CaO	10.17	0.01	10.47	0.06	10.47	0.06	10.49	0.06	10.73	0.02	10.52	0.01	10.23	0.01
Na ₂ O	3.24	<0.01	3.35	<0.01	3.35	<0.01	3.32	0.01	3.42	<0.01	3.36	<0.01	3.26	<0.01
K ₂ O	1.84	<0.01	1.90	<0.01	1.89	<0.01	1.89	0.01	1.94	<0.01	1.90	<0.01	1.85	<0.01
P ₂ O ₅	0.56	0.01	0.58	0.01	0.58	0.01	0.59	0.03	0.59	0.01	0.58	0.01	0.56	0.01
H ₂ O	5.24	0.18	2.22	0.22	2.29	0.23	2.69	0.22	0		1.94	0.24	4.63	0.22
CO ₂ (ppm)	4748	83	4733	430	4730	430	3127	284	5011	88	4914	86	4779	84
δ ¹³ C (‰)	-1.81	0.02	+1.99	0.03	-5.43	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	0.50	<0.01	0.50	<0.01	0.50	<0.01	0.50	0.01	0.50	<0.01	0.50	<0.01	0.50	<0.01
SiO ₂	47.20	0.10	48.64	0.12	48.64	0.12	48.98	0.13	49.76	0.11	49.04	0.13	48.86	0.11
TiO ₂	1.58	0.03	1.56	0.02	1.58	0.03	1.63	0.03	1.67	0.02	1.65	0.02	1.64	0.03
Al ₂ O ₃	16.46	0.06	16.75	0.07	16.78	0.05	16.86	0.06	17.17	0.07	17.01	0.09	17.00	0.08
FeO _T	9.63	0.08	9.57	0.07	9.68	0.08	9.94	0.09	9.70	0.07	9.84	0.08	9.79	0.09
MnO	0.27	0.02	0.25	0.02	0.27	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.28	0.02	0.28	0.02	0.27	0.02
MgO	5.63	0.05	5.60	0.05	5.71	0.06	6.22	0.06	5.85	0.07	5.81	0.06	5.79	0.06
CaO	6.58	0.04	6.91	0.04	6.77	0.04	6.60	0.03	6.90	0.04	6.84	0.03	6.76	0.04
Na ₂ O	3.53	0.07	3.85	0.07	3.87	0.06	3.91	0.05	3.94	0.07	3.87	0.06	3.88	0.06
K ₂ O	1.72	0.02	1.77	0.02	1.77	0.02	1.82	0.01	1.82	0.02	1.79	0.01	1.80	0.02
P ₂ O ₅	0.50	0.03	0.48	0.03	0.49	0.03	0.29	0.03	0.52	0.03	0.52	0.03	0.51	0.03
H ₂ O ^c	6.08	0.06	3.67	0.05	3.77	0.14	3.22	0.05	2.19	0.01	2.97	0.05	3.47	0.1
H ₂ O ^d	6.25	0.05	3.70	0.06	4.09	0.06	3.11	0.06	1.95	0.06	2.83	0.06	3.19	0.06
δD ^d (‰)	-130.9	0.9	-131.2	0.9	-128.2	0.9	-127.2	0.9	-124.8	0.9	-125.3	0.9	-119.3	0.9
CO ₂ ^c (ppm)	2321	48	2535	114	2341	164	859	14	252	15	116	6	63	16
δ ¹³ C ^e (‰)	-14.2	0.8	-12.6	3.3	-19.4	1.2			-10.5	3.8	-17.6	2.3	-15.2	2.6
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	0.55	0.07	0.72	0.07	0.69	0.07	0.72	0.07	0.74	0.07	0.75	0.07	0.70	0.07
H ₂ O ^d (g)	0.0001	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001	0.0003	0.0001
CO ₂ ^d (g)	0.0005	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001	0.0004	0.0001	0.0003	0.0001	0.0009	0.0001	0.0019	0.0001

Table 5.6: Powder, glass, and fluid compositions for each experimental run *cont.*

Sample	ETNA15	s.d.	ETNA16	s.d.	ETNA17	s.d.	ETNA25	s.d.	ETNA26	s.d.	ETNA27	s.d.	ETNA28	s.d.
Batch	2		2		2		7		7		7		7	
P (kbar)	1		1		1		5		5		5		5	
T (°C)	1250		1250		1250		1250		1250		1250		1250	
SiO ₂	47.9	0.06	45.58	0.06	46.95	0.06	47.83	0.02	47.26	0.02	46.8	0.02	45.83	0.01
TiO ₂	1.8	0.04	1.71	0.04	1.76	0.04	1.76	0.01	1.74	0.01	1.72	0.01	1.69	0.01
Al ₂ O ₃	16.25	0.02	15.47	0.02	15.93	0.02	16.22	<0.01	16.03	<0.01	15.87	<0.01	15.55	<0.01
Fe ₂ O ₃	5.8	0.04	5.52	0.04	5.68	0.04	5.75	0.01	5.68	0.01	5.63	0.01	5.51	0.01
FeO	5.16	0.03	4.91	0.03	5.06	0.03	5.18	0.01	5.12	0.01	5.07	0.01	4.97	0.01
MnO	0.2	0.04	0.19	0.04	0.2	0.04	0.19	0.01	0.19	0.01	0.19	0.01	0.18	0.01
MgO	5.96	0.04	5.67	0.04	5.84	0.04	5.91	0.01	5.84	0.01	5.78	0.01	5.66	0.01
CaO	10.76	0.04	10.24	0.04	10.54	0.04	10.71	0.01	10.59	0.01	10.48	0.01	10.27	0.01
Na ₂ O	3.43	<0.01	3.26	<0.01	3.36	<0.01	3.42	<0.01	3.38	<0.01	3.35	<0.01	3.28	<0.01
K ₂ O	1.94	0.01	1.85	0.01	1.9	0.01	1.94	<0.01	1.92	<0.01	1.9	<0.01	1.86	<0.01
P ₂ O ₅	0.59	0.02	0.56	0.02	0.57	0.02	0.58	<0.01	0.57	<0.01	0.57	<0.01	0.56	<0.01
H ₂ O	0		4.84	0.21	2	0.22	0		1.19	0.20	2.14	0.20	4.17	0.19
CO ₂ (ppm)	2110	176	2008	167	20.68	172	5055	44	4995	43	4947	43	4844	42
δ ¹³ C (‰)	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	0.5	<0.01	0.5	<0.01	0.5	<0.01	0.5	<0.01	0.5	<0.01	0.5	<0.01	0.5	<0.01
SiO ₂	50.50	0.13	49.10	0.13	49.35	0.11	50.03	0.12	49.10	0.13	48.32	0.12	47.81	0.12
TiO ₂	1.61	0.03	1.57	0.03	1.58	0.03	1.78	0.03	1.74	0.02	1.74	0.02	1.69	0.03
Al ₂ O ₃	17.46	0.08	17.00	0.08	17.12	0.07	17.29	0.06	17.02	0.07	16.88	0.08	16.70	0.08
FeO _T	9.23	0.08	9.66	0.08	9.76	0.09	8.71	0.07	9.63	0.07	10.00	0.08	9.93	0.09
MnO	0.31	0.02	0.30	0.02	0.30	0.02	0.22	0.02	0.21	0.03	0.21	0.02	0.20	0.02
MgO	6.05	0.06	5.90	0.06	6.01	0.05	6.49	0.05	6.26	0.06	6.22	0.05	6.05	0.06
CaO	6.81	0.04	6.64	0.03	6.73	0.04	6.86	0.03	6.83	0.03	6.84	0.04	6.71	0.04
Na ₂ O	4.08	0.05	3.90	0.07	3.94	0.06	4.16	0.07	4.04	0.07	3.93	0.05	3.85	0.07
K ₂ O	1.84	0.02	1.81	0.02	1.79	0.02	1.85	0.02	1.79	0.02	1.73	0.01	1.74	0.02
P ₂ O ₅	0.48	0.03	0.46	0.03	0.46	0.03	0.51	0.03	0.50	0.03	0.50	0.03	0.49	0.03
H ₂ O ^c	1.58	0.01	3.30	0.09	2.85	0.05	1.59	0.03	2.13	0.06	2.80	0.02	3.80	0.06
H ₂ O ^d	1.32	0.06	3.40	0.06	2.58	0.06	1.51	0.06	1.94	0.06	2.84	0.06	3.91	0.06
δD ^d (‰)	-125.3	0.9	-117.8	0.9	-124.1	0.9	-166.5	0.9	-165.7	0.9	-168	0.9	-167.1	0.9
CO ₂ ^e (ppm)	312	13	51	19	151	7	2022	40	1935	40	1864	19	1787	41
δ ¹³ C ^e (‰)							-7.5	1.7	-6	0.7	-6.8	0.9	-6.9	1.2
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	0.81	0.07	0.69	0.07	0.75	0.07	0.90	0.08	0.80	0.07	0.78	0.07	0.75	0.07
H ₂ O ^d (g)	0.0001	0.0001	0.0004	0.0001	0.0000	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001	0.0005	0.0001	0.0004	0.0001
CO ₂ ^d (g)	0.0003	0.0001	0.0011	0.0001	0.0008	0.0001	0.0002	0.0001	0.0003	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0003	0.0001

Table 5.6: Powder, glass, and fluid compositions for each experimental run *cont.*

Sample	ETNA29	s.d.	ETNA30	s.d.
Batch	7		7	
P (kbar)	5		5	
T (°C)	1250		1250	
SiO ₂	46.61	0.02	45.45	0.01
TiO ₂	1.71	0.01	1.67	0.01
Al ₂ O ₃	15.81	<0.01	15.42	<0.01
Fe ₂ O ₃	5.6	0.01	5.46	0.01
FeO	5.05	0.01	4.92	0.01
MnO	0.19	0.01	0.18	0.01
MgO	5.76	0.01	5.62	0.01
CaO	10.44	0.01	10.18	0.01
Na ₂ O	3.34	<0.01	3.25	<0.01
K ₂ O	1.89	<0.01	1.84	<0.01
P ₂ O ₅	0.57	<0.01	0.55	<0.01
H ₂ O	2.55	0.20	4.97	0.19
CO ₂ (ppm)	4926	43	4804	42
δ ¹³ C (‰)	-1.81	0.02	-1.81	0.02
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	0.5	<0.01	0.5	<0.01
SiO ₂	48.24	0.12	47.36	0.22
TiO ₂	1.71	0.03	1.62	0.03
Al ₂ O ₃	16.77	0.08	16.63	0.12
FeO _T	9.91	0.07	9.66	0.11
MnO	0.20	0.02	0.19	0.02
MgO	6.17	0.04	5.75	0.06
CaO	6.71	0.03	6.58	0.04
Na ₂ O	3.92	0.07	3.63	0.06
K ₂ O	1.76	0.01	1.72	0.02
P ₂ O ₅	0.49	0.04	0.46	0.03
H ₂ O ^c	3.48	0.04	5.81	0.04
H ₂ O ^d	3.32	0.06	5.69	0.06
δD ^d (‰)	-166.6	0.9	-166.5	0.09
CO ₂ ^e (ppm)	1886	37	1245	6
δ ¹³ C ^e (‰)	-10.1	0.3	-11.2	0.9
Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	0.78	0.07	0.53	0.07
H ₂ O (g)	0.0001	0.0001	-0.0001	0.0001
CO ₂ (g)	0.0001	0.0001	0.0004	0.0001

Notes: ETNA18–ETNA23 do not exist as they were lost in the post prior to glass synthesis. ETNA24 is discussed in Chapter 4. ^aMeasurements are calculated from the weighed-in components of the starting powders in wt% unless specified otherwise. ^bMeasurements are in wt% measured by EPMA unless specified otherwise: ^cSIMS-4f, ^dTCEA, ^eSIMS-1270. ^d is ‘Final – fluid’ measured using weight-loss during freezing/boiling. Errors of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) are in *italics*.

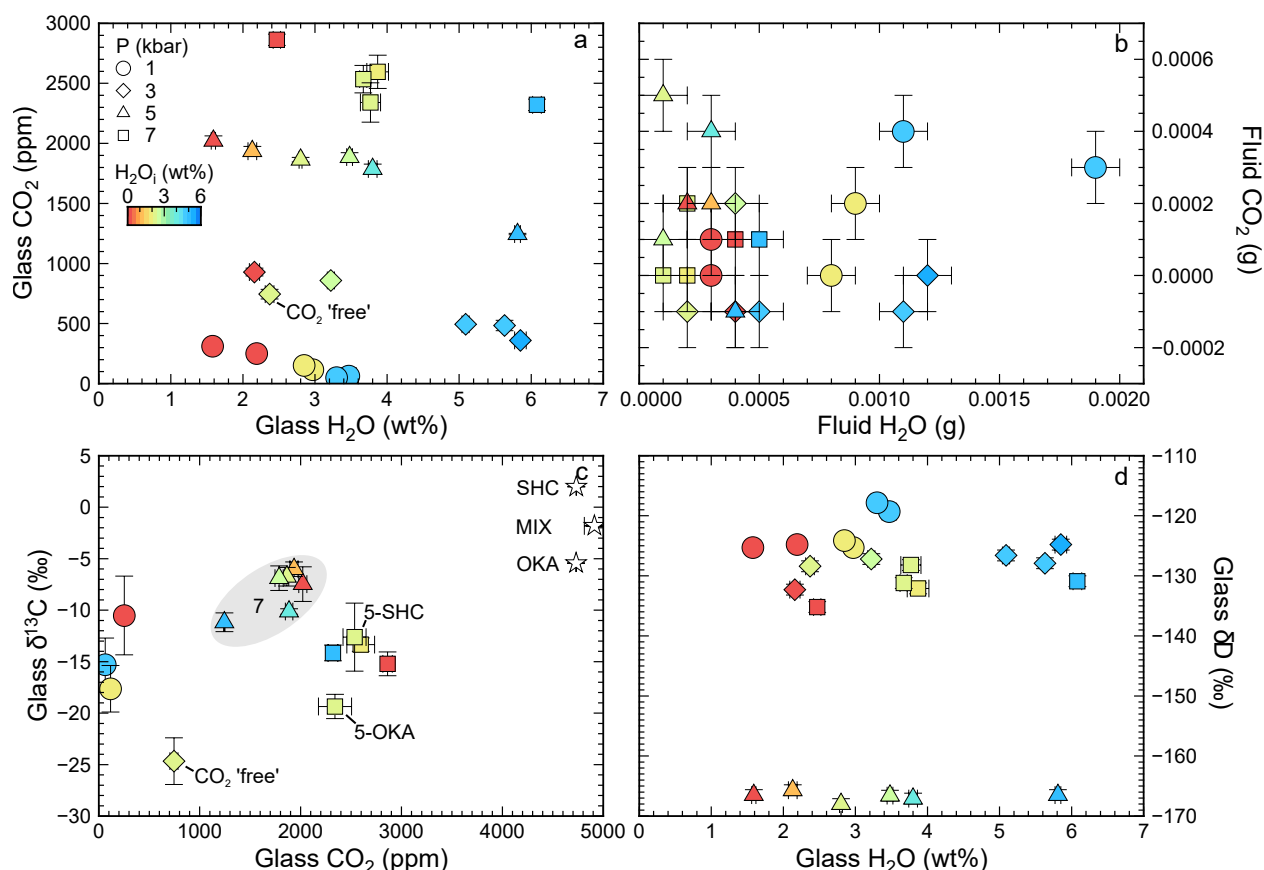


Figure 5.7: Volatile composition of the glass and fluid: (a) CO₂ and H₂O of the glass; (b) CO₂ and H₂O of the fluid; (c) δ¹³C and CO₂ of the glass; and (d) δD and H₂O of the glass, where symbol shape indicates pressure and colour indicates initial H₂O concentration. In (c) the initially loaded values (except for the CO₂ 'free' glass) are shown by white stars and labelled according to the type of CaCO₃ (Table 4.2); and different starting batches are labelled, where the six data points not labelled belong to 5a and all started with MIX unless otherwise stated.

Figure 5.8 compares the measured glass and fluid composition against various solubility models: VolatileCalc (Newman and Lowenstern, 2002), SolEx (Witham et al., 2012), and MagmaSat (Ghiorso and Gualda, 2015). All model calculations were performed at 1250 °C. VolatileCalc was modelled for a nominal 49 wt% SiO₂ basalt composition, whereas SolEx and MagmaSat used the average glass composition from Table 5.6 (ETNA-A in Table 3.1). MagmaSat was modelled at the extremes of potential iron oxidation states (i.e., all Fe²⁺ and all Fe³⁺), although these glasses contain predominantly Fe²⁺ (0.5–0.9 Fe²⁺/Fe_T). The isobars calculated with different models agree at low pressures, but diverge increasingly at higher pressures, with MagmaSat predicting higher solubilities than both VolatileCalc and SolEx (Figure 5.8a). MagmaSat predicts a distinct decrease in CO₂ solubility at low H₂O concentrations (Figure 5.8a).

Figure 5.8b shows the H₂O-CO₂ data coloured by the measured X_{H₂O} (H₂O/(H₂O+CO₂)) in moles) fluid composition, with isopleths calculated using VolatileCalc. Figure 5.8c shows X_{H₂O} measured using the fluid composition compared to that calculated using VolatileCalc. X_{H₂O} measured using the fluid composition has very large error bars because of the small quantities of fluids measured, but the measured fluid composition always overestimated X_{H₂O} calculated using VolatileCalc. The consistent sense of discrepancy suggests that either H₂O is overestimated, CO₂ is underestimated, or VolatileCalc is incorrect. The dissolved glass compositions agree well with VolatileCalc, hence it seems more likely there is a bias in the fluid

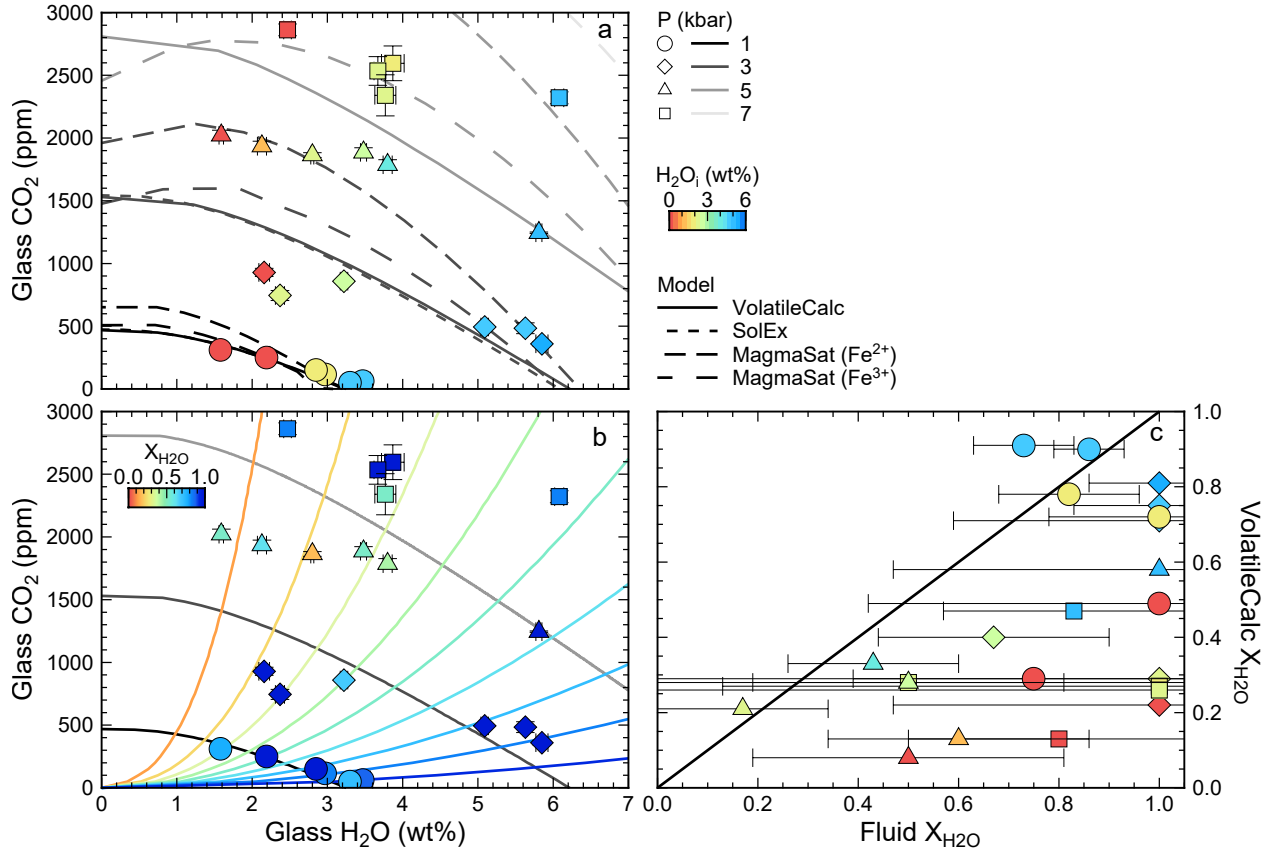


Figure 5.8: Comparison of measured and modelled volatile concentrations of the glass and fluids, where symbol shape indicates pressure: **(a)** glass H₂O and CO₂ concentration coloured by initial H₂O concentration, with isobars calculated using VolatileCalc, SolEx, and MagmaSat; **(b)** glass H₂O and CO₂ concentration coloured by measured X_{H₂O} of the fluid, with isobars and isopleths using VolatileCalc; and **(c)** X_{H₂O} of the exsolved fluid measured using the fluid composition and calculated from the glass composition using VolatileCalc, which are coloured by initial H₂O concentration and the 1-to-1 line is shown.

measurements. Fluids condense on the outside of the capsule when it is frozen in liquid N₂, potentially masking any CO₂ released, causing CO₂ to be underestimated. When the capsule is then put in the oven all these fluids, plus any H₂O, are released, which may overestimate the H₂O.

5.4. Constraining the bulk volatile composition

To calculate Δ_{f-m} using a graphical approach (Equation 5.5), the bulk concentration and isotope ratio of carbon and hydrogen need to be established.

5.4.1. Carbon

The CO₂ concentration of the starting powders as measured by CSA is significantly higher than that weighed in (8000–20000 ppm using CSA in Table 5.7 vs. 0–5000 ppm weighed-in in Table 5.6). This is due to sustained adsorption of CO₂ onto the powders over time as CSA was conducted almost a year after the powders were created. Hence, these CO₂ concentrations do not represent those at the time of the experiments. The relative errors on the fluid CO₂ concentrations mean that using these values to quantify the bulk CO₂ (i.e., fluid+glass) of the system is not possible.

Table 5.7: CO₂ concentration of starting powders using CSA.

Batch	CO ₂ (ppm)	<i>s.d.</i>
2	9010	
4	8997	
5a	14425	190
5b	16129	1
5c	19490	83
7	8152	263

Experiments run at 5 (except the most hydrous glasses) and 7 kbar have CO₂ concentrations significantly below the isobars (Figure 5.8a), implying they are undersaturated, but contain less CO₂ than was initially weighed-in (Table 5.6 and Figure 5.7c). This is likely an error in the initial weighing of CO₂ concentration into the starting materials. Alternatively, the solubility models are vastly incorrect for this composition. The agreement with published solubility models for saturated runs at lower pressures implies chemical equilibrium between the melt and the fluid was achieved.

Notably, the CO₂ ‘free’ run (ETNA01), which had no CaCO₃ added to the starting powder and therefore should contain no CO₂, contains 745 ± 40 ppm CO₂ with -24.7 ± 2.3 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Also, all glasses are lighter (more negative) than their initial $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Figure 5.7c). Glasses initially loaded with OKA carbonate (-5.43 ± 0.02 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) are lighter (more negative) than those loaded with either SHC (1.99 ± 0.03 ‰) or MIX (-1.81 ± 0.02 ‰), consistent with the lighter (more negative) isotopic source. SHC glasses are not heavier (more positive) than MIX glasses. The high CO₂ concentration of the CO₂ ‘free’ glass (ETNA01) requires carbon addition. The isotopic signature of ETNA01 is typical of carbon contamination. Carbon contamination is consistent with all glasses being lighter (more negative) than their initial $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, even when no degassing has occurred.

Carbon contamination may vary between starting batches, but is consistent within a starting batch. For instance, undersaturated glasses from the same starting batch run at 5 (except the most hydrous glass) and 7 kbar have similar values of anhydrous CO₂ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Assuming: the carbon contaminant (C_c CO₂ concentration and R_c $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, which is the $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ratio rather than $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ using δ -notation) is represented by ETNA01 (745 ± 40 ppm CO₂ with -24.7 ± 2.3 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$); the isotope ratio of the initial carbon (R_i) is that of the added CaCO₃ (Table 5.6); and the undersaturated runs represent the actual carbon composition of the starting batch after contamination (C_b and R_b , normalised to H₂O-free), the CO₂ originally in the starting powder (C_i , prior to H₂O addition) can be estimated using:

$$C_i = \frac{C_b R_b + C_c R_c}{R_i} \quad (5.8)$$

Starting batch 5a originally contained 1940 ± 228 ppm and starting batch 7 contained 1237 ± 58 ppm CO₂ prior to H₂O being added (Table 5.8). Therefore, we can use undersaturated runs to constrain the bulk CO₂ composition for each starting batch. For starting batches 5 and 7, the initial CO₂ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are calculated by averaging the anhydrous CO₂ concentration and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of undersaturated glasses. For starting batch 2, which does not have an undersaturated run, the anhydrous CO₂ composition of the highest pressure run (3 kbar) is used, and hence this bulk value is a minimum. Unfortunately, experiments where only one capsule was run (i.e., ETNA09–ETNA11) cannot be used further as there is no constraint on their initial CO₂ compositions.

Table 5.8: Calculating the CO₂ concentrations of the starting powders prior to contamination.

Sample	CO ₂ (ppm)	Glass ^a		<i>R</i> ^b	Anhydrous ^c	Initial ^d
		H ₂ O (wt%)	δ ¹³ C (‰)		CO ₂ (ppm)	CO ₂ (ppm)
<i>Contaminant</i>						
ETNA01	745	2.37	-24.7	0.010960		
<i>Starting batch 5a</i>			-14.2 ± 0.9		2702 ± 232	1940 ± 228
ETNA04	2862	2.47	-15.2	0.011066	2935	2168
ETNA05	2569	3.87	-13.3	0.011087	2700	1941
ETNA08	2321	6.08	-14.2	0.011078	2470	1712
<i>Starting batch 7</i>			-7.6 ± 1.8		1976 ± 58	1237 ± 58
ETNA25	2022	1.59	-7.5	0.011153	2054	1315
ETNA26	1935	2.13	-6.0	0.011169	1978	1241
ETNA27	1864	2.80	-6.8	0.011161	1917	1180
ETNA29	1886	3.48	-10.1	0.011123	1954	1210

Notes: ^aGlass values are measured using SIMS; ^b*R* is the ¹³C/¹²C calculated from the glass δ¹³C using Equation A.1; ^canhydrous CO₂ calculated using glass CO₂ and H₂O concentrations; ^dinitial CO₂ calculated using Equation 5.8; and the average ± one standard deviation is calculated for each starting batch.

5.4.2. Hydrogen

Most glasses, except the most hydrous 1 kbar experiments, contain more H₂O than was initially loaded (Figure 5.7a). Also, the Fe concentration of the glass was less, and the Fe oxidation state more reduced, than the initial values (Figure 5.9). These observations all indicate that the initial H₂O composition of the capsules was modified by H₂ infiltration into the capsule due to the *f*H₂ gradient between the IHPV and the capsule as described in Section 5.2.1 via Equations 5.6 and 5.7. Hence, Fe was lost to the capsule wall, Fe₂O₃ in the melt was reduced, and the bulk H₂O became higher than that initially loaded. As H₂O was loaded into each capsule individually, and H₂ gain can differ for each capsule, undersaturated runs cannot be used to constrain the initial H₂O concentration and δD for families of experiments as done for CO₂.

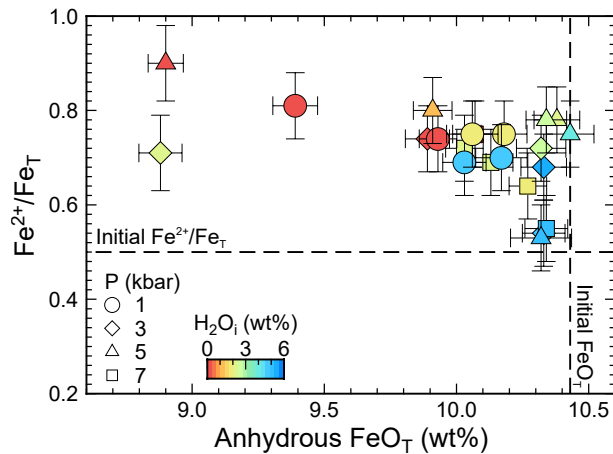


Figure 5.9: Fe oxidation state against anhydrous total Fe concentration (FeO_T, all Fe expressed as FeO) of the glass, where symbol shape indicates pressure and colour indicates initial H₂O concentration. Initial, weighed-in values are shown as dashed lines.

There are three ways to estimate the total H₂O budget of the capsules (Section 5.2.1). Firstly, the melt and fluid H₂O concentrations can simply be added together (fluid+glass), as more H₂O was present in the fluid phase than for CO₂ (Figure 5.7b). Although the relative errors are smaller on the fluid composition than for CO₂, there may be a systematic overestimation as discussed in Section 5.3. Secondly, as described by Equations 5.6 and 5.7, we can use the initial weighed-in and final measured FeO_T, Fe²⁺/Fe_T, and H₂O, to calculate the H₂O added due to Fe loss and reduction.

Thirdly, we can use graphical tie-line analysis (GTLA) described in Section 5.2.1. For this, the melt composition is the measured H_2O and CO_2 in the glass; the fluid composition is calculated using VolatileCalc from the glass volatile concentrations; the initial H_2O concentration is the weighed-in H_2O ; the initial CO_2 concentration is that estimated from undersaturated runs as described in Section 5.4.1; and the added component (i.e., H_2 diffusing through the capsule) is pure H_2O . As initial CO_2 concentration is required, only experiments with well-constrained initial CO_2 can be used, which are shown in Figure 5.10.

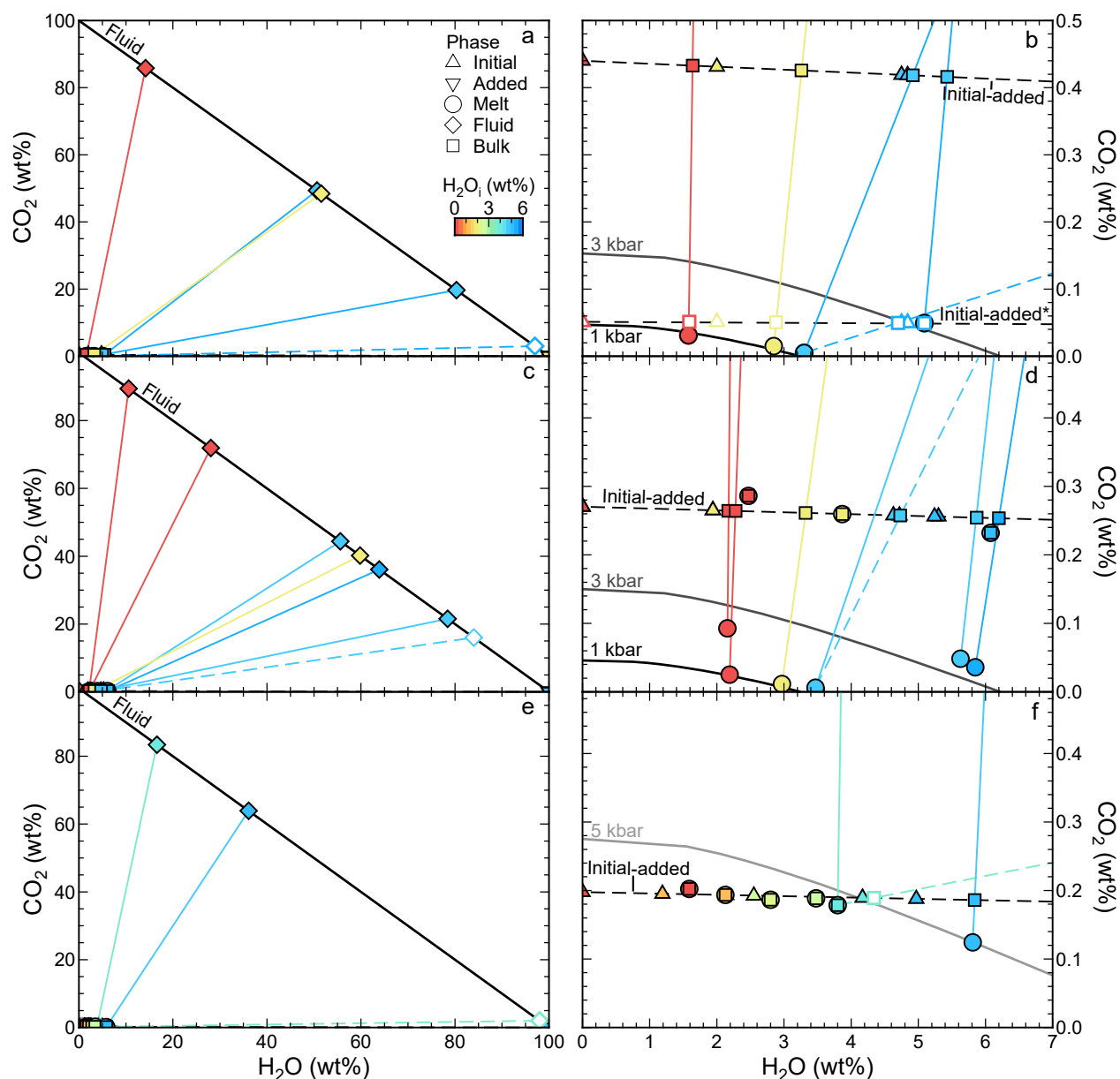


Figure 5.10: Graphical tie-line analysis (GTLA) for calculating bulk volatile concentration. Left panels show the fluid composition as calculated using VolatileCalc (filled symbols) or modified as described in the text (open symbols), whilst right panels show the melt and bulk values. The fluid composition must lie on the black line in the left panels. Isobars are shown in the right panels as solid, curved lines. Tie-lines connecting the initial volatile composition and the added component (100 wt% H_2O) are dashed lines. Tie-lines connecting the melt and fluid compositions are coloured lines, where solid lines use VolatileCalc calculated fluid compositions, whilst dashed lines use modified fluid compositions as discussed in the text. Results are shown for batch (a)–(b) 2, (c)–(d) 5a, and (e)–(f) 7 (Table 5.6). Symbol shape indicates phase, colour indicates initial H_2O concentration, and open/closed indicates whether VolatileCalc or modified fluid compositions are used.

Only compositions on the tie-lines connecting two components are possible from a mixture of the two components (e.g., fluid-melt or initial-added). Therefore, crossing tie-lines means there is a unique bulk H_2O and CO_2 concentration which satisfies the composition of the fluid-melt and initial-added components. Hence, if the tie-lines do not cross, there is no bulk H_2O and CO_2 concentration which can explain the composition of all components. For batch 2, only the minimum initial CO_2 is known. Using this minimum, one saturated experiment does not have crossing tie-lines and requires modifying the fluid composition from 80 wt% H_2O and 20 wt% CO_2 to 97 wt% H_2O and 3 wt% CO_2 (Figure 5.10a). On the other hand, if we assume VolatileCalc calculates the correct fluid composition, the minimum initial CO_2 required for the tie-lines to cross is an order of magnitude larger (~ 4000 ppm) (Figure 5.10b). Although this CO_2 concentration is possible, it does not change the bulk H_2O greatly. For batch 5a, all but one saturated experiment have crossing tie-lines (Figure 5.10d). By changing the fluid composition slightly, from 78 wt% H_2O and 22 wt% CO_2 to 84 wt% H_2O and 16 wt% CO_2 (Figure 5.10c), all tie-lines just cross. This gives a minimum estimate of the bulk H_2O concentration, as the fluid composition could be more CO_2 -rich which would have required even more H_2O addition. For batch 7, one saturated experiment does not have crossing tie-lines. It may in fact not be saturated, but this would mean it gained no H_2O (Figure 5.10f). The change in fluid composition to get the tie-lines to cross is large, from 17 wt% H_2O and 83 wt% CO_2 to 98 wt% H_2O and 2 wt% CO_2 , and again represents a minimum bulk H_2O (Figure 5.10e).

A comparison of the three techniques is shown in Figure 5.11, which agree fairly well. The glass H_2O concentration represents the minimum bulk H_2O . All techniques lie close to the 1-to-1 line compared to the glass H_2O concentration. This is reasonable given that most of the glasses have not undergone significant H_2O degassing, hence most of the H_2O is still in the glass. Using the fluid+glass composition, or GTLA, always has bulk H_2O greater than the melt because of how they are calculated. Using Fe loss and reduction often estimates bulk H_2O less than the glass concentration. This might imply there is an additional reduction reaction not considered occurring in the capsule. Another element may be alloying with AuPd, but no other element shows significant decrease in concentration. As the bulk H_2O concentration cannot be less than the glass H_2O concentration, and the H_2O concentration in the fluid phase may have been overestimated, the values from GTLA are used as the most reliable.

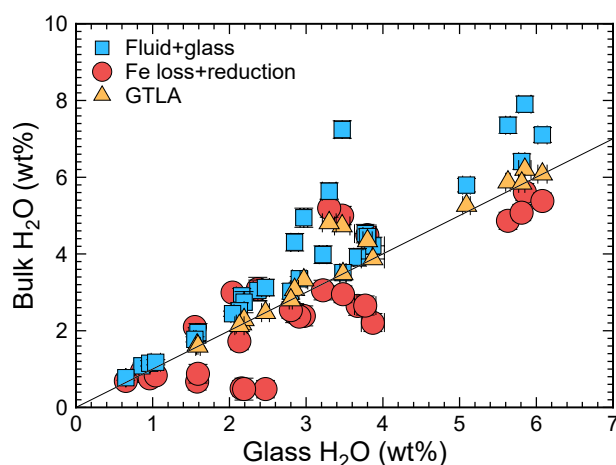


Figure 5.11: Comparison of bulk H_2O estimates using fluid+glass, Fe loss+reduction, and graphical tie-lie approach (GTLA) against the glass H_2O concentration, with the 1-to-1 line shown in black.

Constraining the total δD of the system is more difficult as the δD of the added H_2O was not measured. Also the δD of the H_2 infiltrating into the capsule is unknown and may not be constant between runs. If the system has reached isotopic equilibrium with the IHPV, the total H_2O and its δD will be controlled by the intrinsic IHPV value. If the system has not reached isotopic equilibrium with the IHPV, the δD of the

total H₂O in the capsule will be controlled by the initial δD and H₂O, extent of equilibrium attained ($f\text{H}_2$ gradient, temperature and time dependent), relative diffusivities of H₂ and D₂ (temperature and pressure dependent), and IHPV δD (experiment date and IHPV).

ETNA07, which was run for ~36 hours, has a similar H₂O and δD to equivalent ~18 hours runs. Therefore, it appears diffusion into the capsule was kinetically-driven and little isotopic equilibration occurred between the IHPV and the capsule. If isotopic equilibrium had been achieved between the IHPV and the capsule, undersaturated runs would have the same δD regardless of the initial H₂O concentration, but δD becomes heavier (more positive) with increasing H₂O (Figure 5.7d). This is likely because the driving force to chemically equilibrate the H₂O concentration between the IHPV and the capsule is much larger than the driving force to equilibrate the isotopic difference. Hence, H equilibrium is achieved, but D equilibrium is not. Because of this, the δD of the bulk H₂O in the system is given by:

$$R_b H_b = R_i H_i + R_a (H_b - H_i) \quad (5.9)$$

where R is the isotope ratio expressed as D/H; H is the H₂O concentration; and the subscripts refer to the bulk (b), initial (i), and added (a) components. The initial H₂O is the weighed-in value and the bulk H₂O is the value from either fluid+glass or GTLA (Figure 5.11). The isotope ratio of the added component is assumed to be the same for capsules run during the same experiment. This is constrained using initially anhydrous experiments, which have experienced little/no degassing. The isotope ratio of the initial H₂O is assumed to be the same for 1, 3, and 7 kbar experiments, but different for the 5 kbar experiments as they have very different δD . This is constrained using undersaturated experiments.

5.4.3. Calculated bulk volatile compositions

For subsequent discussion, only experiments with well constrained bulk volatile composition are used (batches 2, 5a and 7). These are summarised in Table 5.9 and Figure 5.12. Excluded experiments are those for which only a single capsule was run from a batch of starting powder (ETNA01 and ETNA09–ETNA11).

Table 5.9: Bulk volatile compositions.

Sample	CO ₂ (ppm)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	<i>s.d.</i>	H ₂ O (wt%)	δD (‰)	Sample	CO ₂ (ppm)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	<i>s.d.</i>	H ₂ O (wt%)	δD (‰)
<i>Starting batch 2</i>						<i>Starting batch 5a</i>					
ETNA03	496	-18.9	2.0	5.26	-129.8	ETNA02	2702	-14.2	0.9	2.17	-132.2
ETNA15	521	-18.9	2.0	1.62	-125.3	ETNA04	2702	-14.2	0.9	2.47	-135.2
ETNA16	496	-18.9	2.0	4.81	-129.6	ETNA05	2650	-14.2	0.9	3.87	-132.1
ETNA17	506	-18.9	2.0	3.07	-128.1	ETNA06	2559	-14.2	0.9	6.20	-130.0
<i>Starting batch 7</i>						ETNA07	2574	-14.2	0.9	5.87	-130.1
ETNA25	1976	-7.6	1.8	1.59	-166.5	ETNA08	2560	-14.2	0.9	6.08	-130.9
ETNA26	1952	-7.6	1.8	2.13	-165.7	ETNA12	2702	-14.2	0.9	2.27	-125.3
ETNA27	1934	-7.6	1.8	2.80	-168.0	ETNA13	2650	-14.2	0.9	3.32	-127.8
ETNA28	1893	-7.6	1.8	4.34	-166.7	ETNA14	2577	-14.2	0.9	4.73	-129.5
ETNA29	1925	-7.6	1.8	3.48	-166.6						
ETNA30	1878	-7.6	1.8	5.84	-166.7						

Notes: Errors, where available, of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) are in *italics*. H₂O and δD using GTLA.

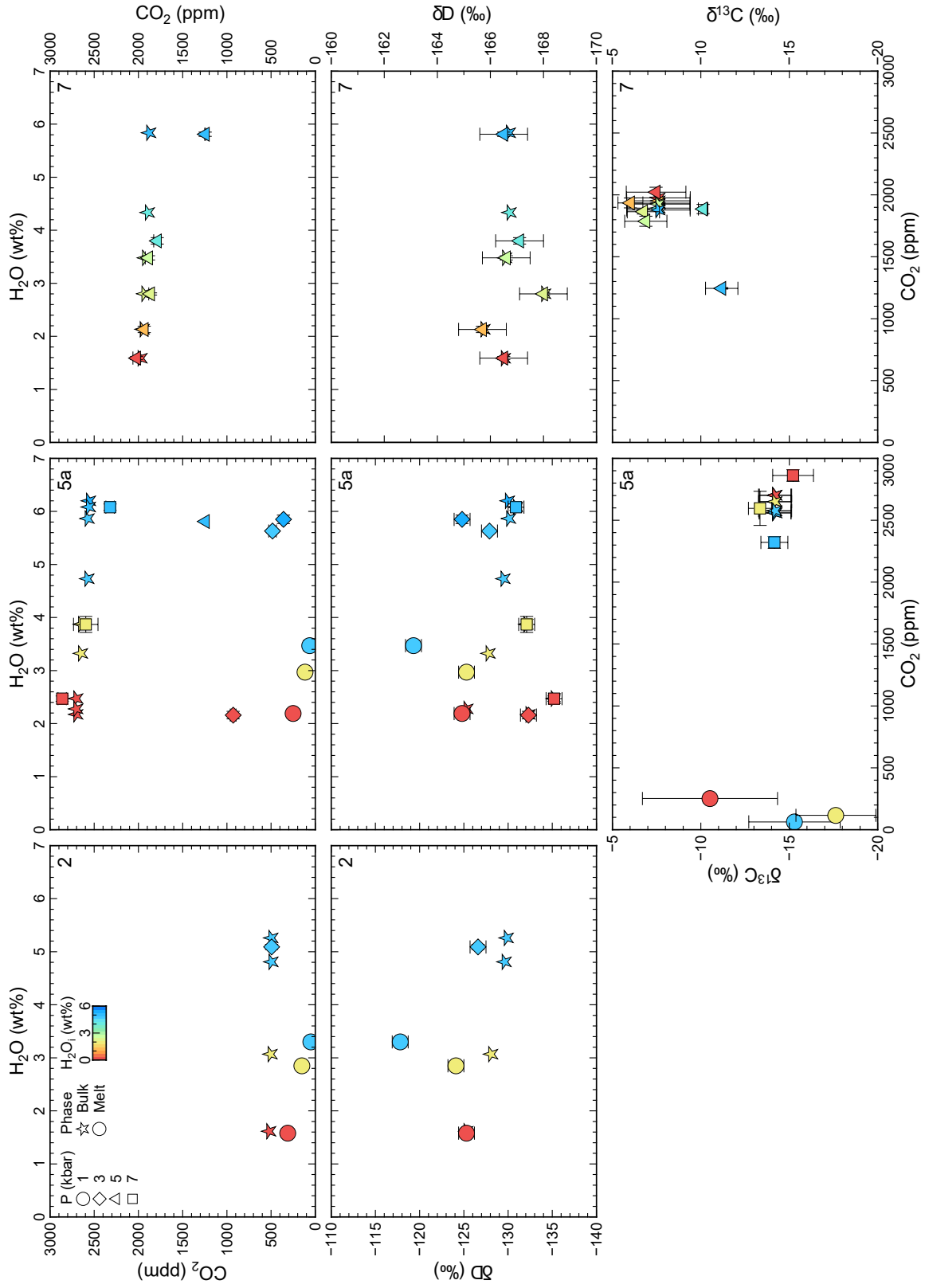


Figure 5.12: Bulk (GTLA) and melt volatile composition for starting batches 2, 5a, and 7, where symbol shape indicates bulk value or experimental pressure for glass values; and symbol colour indicates initial H₂O concentration.

5.5. Volatile speciation

The stable isotope fractionation factor is dependent on the molecular bonds present in the volatiles, hence volatile speciation has a big effect. The fO_2 controls the speciation of volatiles and, as the experiments were unbuffered, it is important to estimate the fO_2 during experimental runs to see what natural conditions they are relevant to. The glass Fe^{2+}/Fe_T can be used to infer the fO_2 of the system at a given pressure, temperature and melt composition using the algorithm of Kress and Carmichael (1991) (Figure 5.13). Our experiments range from NNO-1 to NNO+4. Magmatic Fe^{2+}/Fe_T range from 0.68–0.87 (Kelley and Cottrell, 2009), similar to the values observed in our experiments (0.54–0.90 Fe^{2+}/Fe_T , Table 5.13). The speciation of carbon and hydrogen in the fluid at these oxidising conditions is likely to be exclusively CO_2 and H_2O , and the melt will likely contain CO_3^{2-} , OH^- , and H_2O .

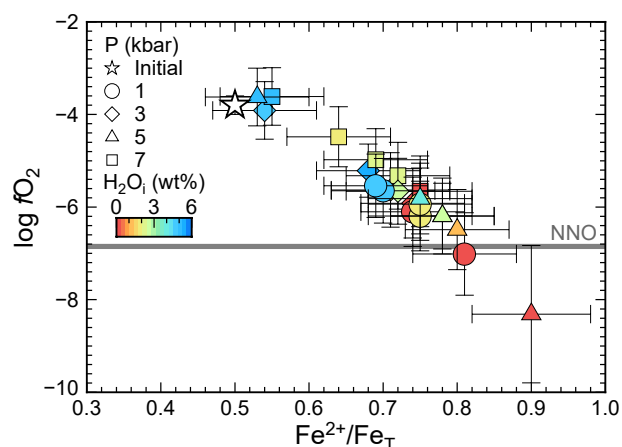


Figure 5.13: Log fO_2 calculated using Kress and Carmichael (1991) against EPMA Fe^{2+}/Fe_T including the initial value, where symbol shape indicates pressure, symbol colour indicates initial H_2O concentration, and the NNO buffer is shown for reference.

5.6. Degassing style

To model the fractionation factor, it is important to verify that the experiments represent closed-system degassing, and hence Equation 5.5 can be used. VolatileCalc was used to model degassing trends as the isobars calculated using VolatileCalc best matched the saturated runs (Figure 5.8a). All VolatileCalc models were run at 49 wt% SiO_2 and 1250 °C. Figure 5.14 shows the results for closed- and open-system degassing trends for the experiments highlighted in Figure 5.12, and experiments lie on closed-system degassing trends. This is especially evident for H_2O -rich runs at 1 kbar which have far less H_2O than would be expected for open-system degassing (Figure 5.14). Closed system degassing is expected as the capsules did not leak during experimental runs, although they were open to H_2 diffusion.

5.7. Volatile isotope systematics

5.7.1. Carbon

As the changes to the bulk carbon composition occurred before the experiments were run, any changes in carbon composition in the melt are attributed to stable isotope fractionation between fluid and melt. Hence, the bulk and melt carbon composition for starting batches 5a and 7 can be used to calculate $\Delta_{f-basalt}^C$. $\Delta_{f-basalt}^C$ is calculated assuming closed-system degassing (Equation 5.5) using weighted (on the $\delta^{13}C$ error) least squares regression. Starting batch 5a gives $\Delta_{f-basalt}^C = -0.3 \pm 3.4 \text{ ‰}$, whereas starting batch 7 gives $\Delta_{f-basalt}^C = +10.2 \pm 3.8 \text{ ‰}$. These two estimates are very different, despite similar sized uncertainties.

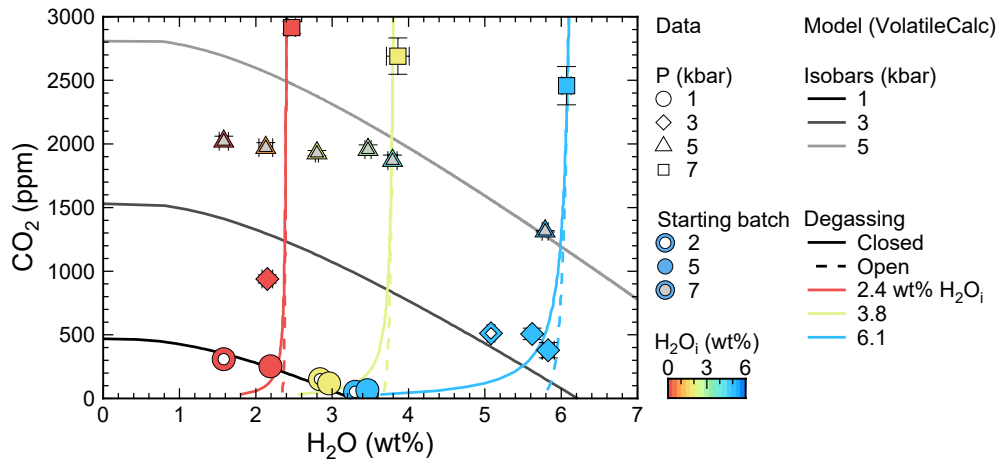


Figure 5.14: Glass CO₂ and H₂O concentration for starting batches 2, 5a, and 7, including equilibrium isobars and closed- and open-system degassing trends calculated using VolatileCalc (1250 °C and 49 wt% SiO₂).

Analytical problems for measuring the carbon isotope ratios in the glasses using SIMS are discussed in Chapter 4. A few of these make calculating the $\Delta_{f\text{-basalt}}^C$ difficult and potentially explain the odd values obtained. Firstly, carbon isotope ratios for CO₂-rich glasses were obtained in a separate session to CO₂-poor glasses. Also, CO₂-rich glasses used a calibration curve that included contaminated analyses, which may have impacted their quantification. These two factors probably compromise the bulk values, which therefore cannot be linked to the degassed glasses. For instance, if the degassed sample in starting batch 7 has a carbon isotope ratio 1 ‰ lighter, $\Delta_{f\text{-basalt}}^C$ becomes $+7.5 \pm 3.5$ ‰, which is radically different to the value reported above. Additionally, for starting batch 5a, the large error bars associated with the low CO₂ glasses result in a large range of $\Delta_{f\text{-basalt}}^C$ being possible. Unfortunately, this means these measurements cannot realistically be used to constrain $\Delta_{f\text{-basalt}}^C$ accurately.

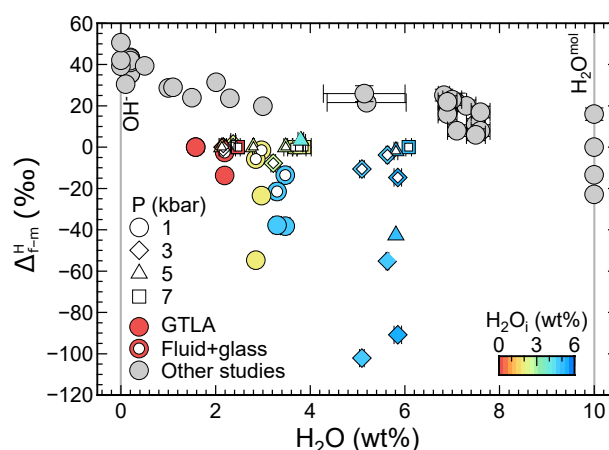
5.7.2. Hydrogen

H₂ and D₂ diffused into the capsule during experimental runs due to the $f\text{H}_2$ gradient between the IHPV and the capsule). Most experiments experienced little H₂O degassing, therefore most of the variation in δD is due to this diffusive process.

The δD of the added component (δD_a) ranged between -125 and -167 ‰, which means H₂ rather than D₂ is the dominant diffusive species through the capsule. This provides either information about the relative diffusivities of H₂ and D₂ through AuPd or reflects the intrinsic δD of the IHPV. δD_a becomes lighter with decreasing pressure (-125, -132, and -135 ‰ at 1, 3, and 7 kbar, respectively). This could be due to increased D₂ diffusivity relative to H₂ with decreasing pressure, reflecting the different volumes of the two species. Other studies have found that H₂ diffuses faster than D₂, and although no pressure effect has been reported, the effect increases with increasing temperature in Pt (Ebisuzaki et al., 1968; Richet et al., 1986). Alternatively, 5 kbar experiments have a very different δD_a (-167 ‰). This could reflect a very different intrinsic δD in the IHPV, as these capsules were run at a different time. It could also be that the intrinsic IHPV δD is highly variable (and dynamic) and it is coincidence that δD_a correlates with pressure for the other experiments. The 5 kbar experiments also require a very different δD_i to model their melt δD , therefore perhaps the very different δD_a is due to a relatively constant intrinsic IHPV δD but a different H isotope gradient due to the different δD_i of the capsule. In other experiments this has been thought to change the isotope ratio of the capsules (Graham et al., 1980; Richet et al., 1986). Further work is required to fully understand these different potential effects.

Figure 5.15 shows the $\Delta_{f-basalt}^H$ calculated assuming closed-system degassing (Equation 5.5) using the bulk H_2O and δD values from either GTLA or fluid+glass calculations. All values are negative, suggesting the melt becomes heavier during degassing (2D -enriched) whereas the fluid becomes lighter (1H -enriched). This is at odds with previous experiments (Figure 5.15). As $\Delta_{f-basalt}^H$ is negative it suggests that changes in the isotope ratio due to degassing are kinetically-driven. This might be due to the continuously changing bulk H_2O of the system from H_2 infiltration, as suggested previously by Richet et al. (1986). The large magnitude of $\Delta_{f-basalt}^H$ suggests the isotopic degassing might be more similar to open-system degassing, which results in larger overall isotopic fractionation. Equation 1.4, which describes open-system degassing, requires $\Delta_{f-basalt}^H$ to be constant throughout degassing. During degassing the H_2O concentration decreases, which changes the proportion of OH^- and H_2O^{mol} in the melt, hence $\Delta_{f-basalt}^H$ changes during degassing. Alternatively, previous experiments did not have mixed fluids present, therefore these data may suggest carbon has a dramatic effect on the isotopic fractionation during degassing. This is unlikely as it would require carbon to radically change the speciation of hydrogen in the melt and/or fluid. Further experiments with mixed fluids, where either H_2 infiltration into the capsule is minimised/eliminated or more accurate methods for characterising the bulk H_2O and δD of the system, including measuring the initial δD of the system and final δD of the fluid, are required.

Figure 5.15: Δ_{f-m}^H against H_2O derived from this study using bulk H_2O and δD from GTLA (closed) and fluid+glass (open), where symbol shape indicates pressure and colour indicates initial H_2O concentration, with other studies shown for comparison from Figure 5.2.



5.8. Conclusions

Although these experiments were not able to quantify the equilibrium isotope fractionation factors for carbon and hydrogen, they are useful for providing a perspective for conducting future experiments that obviates the pitfalls encountered. Firstly, carbon contamination during preparation of the starting powders must be eliminated. Starting powders and capsules will need to be prepared in an inert, carbon-free atmosphere, such as a laminar flow cabinet with a slight positive pressure of an inert gas (e.g., N_2 or Ar). A large quantity of undersaturated, hydrous basaltic glass with and without CO_2 (to verify contamination has been minimised) should be synthesised at high pressure (7–9 kbar) in an IHPV. The carbon and hydrogen concentration and isotope ratio of these glasses should be analysed using SIMS to quantify the bulk volatile composition of the subsequent experiments. The carbon concentration and isotope ratio should match the weighed-in quantity of $CaCO_3$ and its isotope ratio, which is an additional check on the contribution of contamination. These glasses should be stored in Ar-purged dessicators to avoid contamination and hydration after glass synthesis.

To avoid crushing the starting glass, which facilitates carbon contamination, cores should be taken from the starting glass and loaded into capsules, with as little air in them as possible. Alternatively, glasses could be

crushed and loaded in the inert atmosphere as for the initial powders. Capsule loading should be done at the same time to ensure consistency. Experiments should be run at undersaturated conditions (again, to check the levels of contamination), and one or two saturated conditions to simulate degassing. The Fe oxidation state of the starting glass should be measured and, in conjunction with the H_2O concentration, be used to set the $f\text{H}_2$ in subsequent experiments using a Shaw-membrane to prevent H_2 infiltration into the capsule. Oxidising conditions will help to limit Fe loss to the capsule (and hence H_2 infiltration) and will ensure the volatiles speciation is appropriate for arc settings. Ideally, experiments would be run at multiple different water concentrations (including anhydrous) but this would require separate experimental runs for each water content at each pressure as the $f\text{H}_2$ would be different.

The capsules should be crushed in a vacuum line to measure the concentration and isotope ratio of the hydrogen and carbon in the fluid. This will allow direct identification of the species present in the fluid, rather than just assuming them based on their freezing/boiling points, which will help to check whether the fluid re-equilibrated on the quench. The concentration and isotope ratio of the glass should be measured using SIMS. Mass balance of the fluid and glass can be compared to the undersaturated run and the initially added volatile components to check for contamination or volatile leaks. The fractionation factor of carbon and hydrogen can be calculated graphically through all the undersaturated and degassed glasses (Equation 5.5), which can be compared to the difference between the fluid and glass (Equation 5.1).

Chapter 6

Insights into the 23 November 2013 paroxysm at Etna, Sicily, using melt inclusions

Author contributions and declaration: E.C. Hughes collected, processed, and interpreted the data, and wrote the chapter with the help of J.D. Blundy, H.M. Mader, G. Kilgour, and D. Andronico, who also provided the samples.

ABSTRACT

Etna, Sicily, is one of the most frequently active basaltic volcanoes in the world, with periodic changes in eruption intensity. In 2011–2013, the volcano had repeated paroxysmal events of which the 23 November 2013 eruption was one of the most explosive episodes. Olivine, pyroxene, and melt inclusions chemistry, including volatile concentrations and isotope ratios, were measured to investigate the cause of the high explosivity of the 23 November 2013 eruption. Melt inclusions have undergone varying degrees of post-entrapment modification, resulting in Mg-, Fe-, and H₂O-loss, and Fe oxidation. The olivine forsterite content suggests two populations, in equilibrium with a more primitive (Fo₈₁) and more evolved (Fo₇₂) magma, respectively, derived from the same parental magma. The eruption was likely triggered by an injection of the more primitive magma (>2 kbar) into the shallow plumbing system (<1 kbar), where the more evolved magma resided. The more primitive magma contained at least 1600 ppm CO₂ and ~3 wt% H₂O and underwent closed-system degassing during ascent. This magma mixed with the more evolved magma, containing less H₂O, which may have experienced CO₂-flushing previously. Carbon and hydrogen isotope ratios of the melt inclusions are consistent with previous data at Etna.

6.1. Introduction

Mount Etna, Sicily, is one of the world's most active basaltic volcanoes. Mount Etna occurs in an unusual geodynamic setting and its chemistry is intermediate between ocean island and island arc basalts (e.g., Schiano et al., 2001). The volcano sits between the Aeolian arc to the north, caused by the collision of the African and European plates, and the transform Malta escarpment to the west (e.g., Barberi et al., 1974) (Figure 6.1). Primary magmas at Etna are thought to have been sourced through a variety of processes, such as the Ionian slab migrating south, upper mantle upwelling due to rollback, a slab window opening, and melting of variably metasomatised mantle, amongst others (e.g., Schiano et al., 2001; Schellart, 2010; Gvirtzman and Nur, 1999; Viccaro and Cristofolini, 2008).

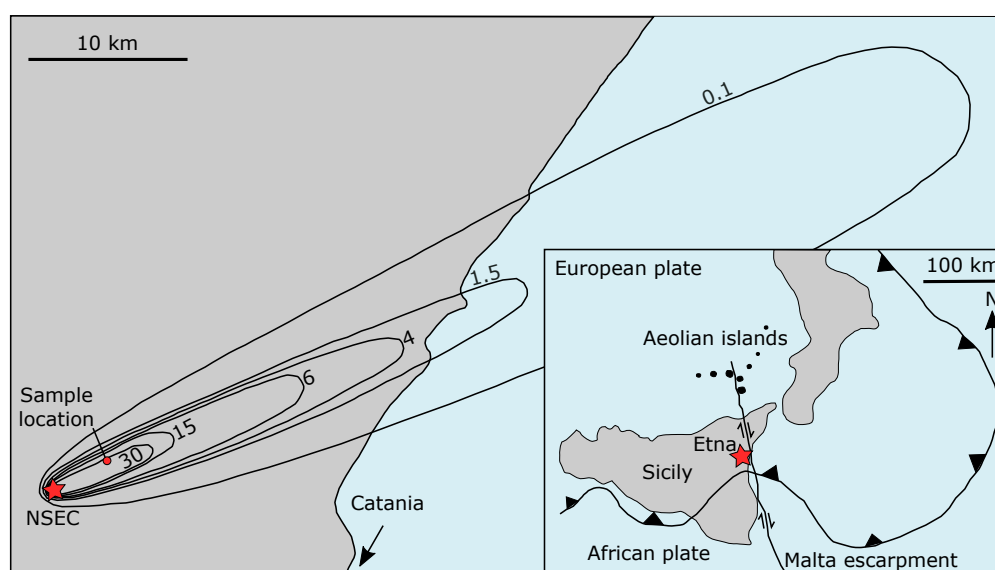


Figure 6.1: Map of Etna and the sample locality. Inset map shows the tectonic setting of Etna after Kahl et al. (2015). Main map shows the location of the New South East Crater (NSEC), isomass lines (in $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) of the 23 November 2013 tephra fallout deposit after Andronico et al. (2015), and the sample locality of the 23 November 2013 eruption used in this study.

The plumbing system of Etna is complicated, with magmatic environments (also called magmatic facies) characterised by different intensive parameters such as pressure, temperature, $f\text{O}_2$, H_2O , concentration and bulk melt composition (e.g., Giuffrida and Viccaro, 2017; Giacomoni et al., 2018; Kahl et al., 2015). There are also different pathways for the magma to take to reach the surface between these environments, which occur over a variety of timescales (e.g., Kahl et al., 2015). Broadly, there are four magmatic environments, which are summarised in Table 6.1 and Figure 6.2 for three different studies that used the composition of predominantly olivine to infer the intensive parameters. Kahl et al. (2015) analysed olivine from eruptions from 1991–2008, whilst Giuffrida and Viccaro (2017) and Giacomoni et al. (2018) analysed olivine from the 2011–2013 sequence. With decreasing pressure: the melt composition becomes more evolved, the temperature decreases, the Fo of the olivine becomes more Fe-rich, the H_2O concentration decreases, and the system becomes more reduced (Giuffrida and Viccaro, 2017; Giacomoni et al., 2018; Kahl et al., 2015). The system is generally more CO_2 -rich in the more primitive magma, but CO_2 -flushing can increase the CO_2 concentration of the shallow magma (e.g., Collins et al., 2009).

Etna is persistently active, continuously releasing volatiles into the atmosphere, e.g., as much as 5–10 %

Table 6.1: Plumbing system at Etna from the olivine geochemistry.

	Kahl et al. (2015)	Giuffrida and Viccaro (2017)	Giacomoni et al. (2018)
Environment		M ₀₀	F1
Olivine Fo		85	88
P (kbar)		6	16
T (°C)		1200	1270
log(<i>f</i> O ₂ , bars)		-6.8	
H ₂ O (wt%)		1.4	
CO ₂ (ppm)		6000	
Environment	M ₀	M ₀	F2
Olivine Fo	79–83	80–82	78–84
P (kbar)	1	3.9	6–8
T (°C)	1110	1160	1165
log(<i>f</i> O ₂ , bars)	NNO–QFM	-8.5	
H ₂ O (wt%)	3.5–5.2	1.6	
CO ₂ (ppm)		3000	
Environment	M ₁	M _{1a} /M _{1b}	F3
Olivine Fo	75–78	75–78	74–79
P (kbar)	0.25–2	1.4–2.9	2–4.5
T (°C)	1110	1110–1130	1130
log(<i>f</i> O ₂ , bars)	NNO–QFM	-9 to -9.3	
H ₂ O (wt%)	0.1–1.4	1.4–1.5	3
CO ₂ (ppm)		1000–2000	
Environment	M ₂ /M ₃	M ₂	F4
Olivine Fo	65–72	70–72	70–75
P (kbar)	0.2–1.1	0.3	0–2
T (°C)	1080	1090	1130
log(<i>f</i> O ₂ , bars)	QFM	-9.7	
H ₂ O (wt%)	0–1.1	1	<3
CO ₂ (ppm)		100	

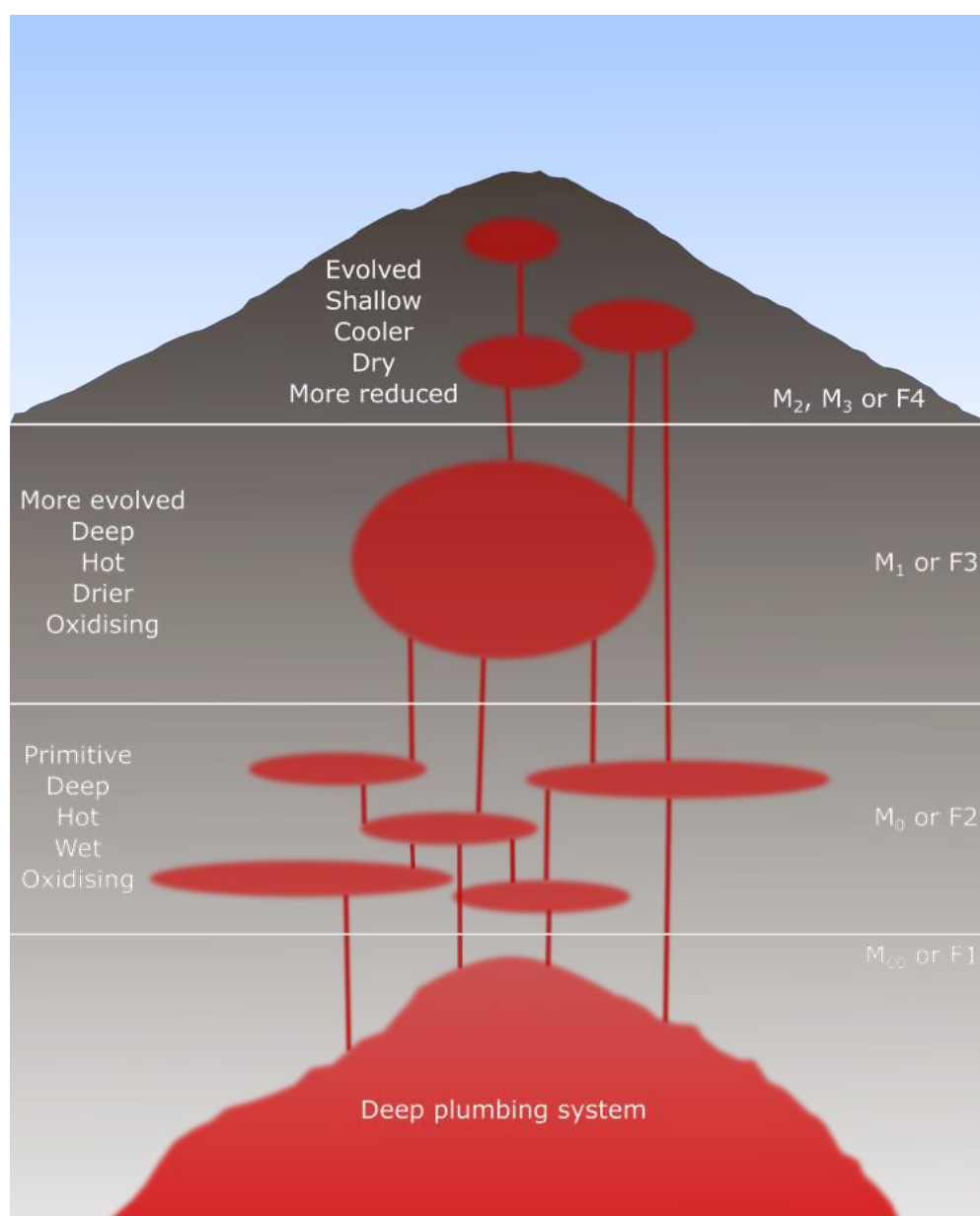


Figure 6.2: Schematic illustration of the plumbing system at Etna, based on the work of Giuffrida and Viccaro (2017), Giacomoni et al. (2018) and Kahl et al. (2015). There are four distinct magmatic environments (or facies), which are summarised in Table 6.1.

of CO₂ and S global emissions (Aiuppa et al., 2006; Allard et al., 2006a), and often erupting volatile-rich magma (e.g., Métrich et al., 2004). Etna exhibits a wide range of eruptive styles, from effusive lava flows (e.g., 2004–2005; Burton et al., 2005) to Plinian eruptions (e.g., 122 B.C.; Coltelli et al., 1998). Since 1998, the most common eruptive style is paroxysmal activity at the summit craters, characterised by sequences of fire-fountaining episodes (e.g., Andronico et al., 2014). Furthermore, the highly explosive flank eruptions in 2001 and 2002–2003 (Andronico et al., 2005, and references therein) were driven by a new batch of primitive magma entering the system and ponding at 4–6 km depth (Métrich et al., 2004; Spilliaert et al., 2006). The magmas had extremely high volatile contents, up to 4100 ppm CO₂ and 3.5 wt% H₂O, which rose rapidly to the surface under closed-degassing (Métrich et al., 2004; Spilliaert et al., 2006). In contrast, between 2004–2007 the behaviour was dominated by effusive eruptions driven by gas-

poor magmas which represented the residual magmas from the 2001–2003 eruptions, but with significant evolution of the volatiles (Collins et al., 2009). These magmas had been dehydrated and CO₂-enriched by sustained CO₂-flushing during storage (Collins et al., 2009). There were seven fire-fountaining events in 2007–2008 (e.g., Aiuppa et al., 2010; Andronico et al., 2008; Bonaccorso et al., 2011b), after which began the effusive flank eruption from 2008–2009 (e.g., Bonaccorso et al., 2011a, 2013).

Almost one million people live on the slopes of Etna and the international airport of Catania (the biggest city around the volcano) is one of busiest in Italy. Therefore, understanding the causes of the differing eruption styles and changes in behaviour at Etna is critical. As such, Etna is well-studied and -instrumented, which makes it an ideal candidate to test new techniques and understand the fundamental processes driving basaltic eruptions.

6.1.1. 2011–2013 eruptive sequence

Between 2011–2013 there were 46 paroxysmal episodes consisting of lava fountains accompanied by lava flows, each one lasting from hours to one or two days. Since the first episode on 12 January 2011, the eruptive activity took place on the east slope of the South East Crater (Andronico et al., 2014), which over time formed the New South East Crater (NSEC) (e.g., Behncke et al., 2014; Bonaccorso et al., 2014) (Figure 6.1). The 46 episodes can be subdivided into three main episodic sequences. The first sequence consisted of 25 episodes between January 2011 and April 2012. After a ten-month hiatus, a further eleven episodes occurred between February and April 2013. The last sequence started after a six-month hiatus, occurring between October and December 2013, consisting of ten episodes. All the 2011–2013 episodes displayed similar behaviour, which have been observed in past episodic sequences (e.g., in 2000; Alparone et al., 2003; Andronico and Corsaro, 2011). Typically, episodes began with Strombolian explosions and weak effusive activity for a few hours. This increased quickly to lava fountaining and strong lava flows before rapid cessation of all eruptive phenomena. However, the last two episodes in December 2013 were less violent and were characterised by prolonged, powerful Strombolian activity, which did not evolve into lava fountaining, and a greater volume of lava flows. Magmas in the 2011–2013 sequence are thought to be the result of fractional crystallisation, combined with mixing, of more primitive magmas from different depths in the plumbing system (Giacomoni et al., 2018; Giuffrida and Viccaro, 2017; Viccaro et al., 2015).

6.1.2. 23 November 2013 eruption

The 23 November 2013 eruption of Etna provides an excellent case study to apply the techniques and ideas developed during this thesis (Figure 6.1). Strombolian activity began the day before (22/11/13) at 15:40 (UT) and increased in intensity throughout the night into the next morning (Bonaccorso et al., 2014). At 08:00, an eruption cloud formed above the NSEC and at 09:30 discontinuous lava fountaining began, which became more sustained. According to Bonaccorso et al. (2014), at 09:50, the lava fountain reached 2.5 km high, whilst Andronico et al. (2015) evaluated the maximum height as ~ 800 m. The eruption column was estimated to reach 5–6 km above the cone (Andronico et al., 2015; Bonaccorso et al., 2014). The paroxysmal phase began to decline at 10:05 and was finished by 10:15 (45 mins in total), with a climatic phase of only 25 mins. There were moderate Strombolian explosions and a weak ash plume until 11:13, and column collapse produced two small flows. Despite a similar total erupted volume to previous events, there was no lava flow associated with the eruption. Using the time-averaged discharge rate from deformation data ($360 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$),

the total erupted mass was 4.8×10^6 kg (1.6×10^6 m³ dense rock equivalent using a density of ~ 3 kg·m³) (Bonaccorso et al., 2014). Conversely, Andronico et al. (2015) and Poret et al. (2018) estimated 1.3×10^9 kg and 1.2×10^6 kg using field data and numerical simulations, respectively.

6.1.3. Hypothesis and approach

Two mechanisms are thought to cause intense paroxysms at Etna, which will have different precursory signals. Either these paroxysms are caused by a new injection of gas-rich, primitive magma, or from evolved magma that has been enriched in volatiles that have accumulated at the top of the magma (Jaupart and Vergnolle, 1989). The height of the lava fountain has been used by Bonaccorso et al. (2014) to infer that a more primitive, gas-rich magma entered the system, but the volatile content of that magma is unknown. This theory is tested by analysing melt inclusions for major and minor element chemistry, volatile concentrations and isotope ratios (H₂O, CO₂, S, Cl, and F; δD and $\delta^{13}C$), and Fe oxidation state. Additionally, major and minor element chemistry of olivine and pyroxene are measured. The extent of post-entrapment modification to the melt inclusion composition is evaluated. This new geochemical dataset is compared to previous analyses on the 2011–2013 eruptive sequence; gas-rich (2001–2002) and -poor (2004–2007) eruptions; and volcanic gas data.

6.2. Theory: Post-entrapment modification of melt inclusions

Various processes after the melt inclusion has been trapped can alter its composition and structure (Figure 6.3). The extent to which these processes have occurred needs to be evaluated to accurately interpret melt inclusion data.

6.2.1. Continued host-mineral crystallisation

The host mineral is on the liquidus when the melt inclusion is trapped, hence it will tend to crystallise on the walls of the inclusion after entrapment (e.g., Danyushevsky et al., 1988; Dungan and Rhodes, 1978; Gaetani and Watson, 2002; Nielsen et al., 1998; Sobolev and Shimizu, 1993; Witham et al., 2012). Crystallisation also occurs in olivine-hosted melt inclusions due to re-equilibration of the melt inclusion with a more reduced magma by diffusion of metal vacancies through the olivine (Section 6.2.3). Crystallisation will change the composition of the melt inclusion, reducing the concentration of compatible elements and increasing the concentration of incompatible elements. This also effects the Fe oxidation state of the melt inclusion as Fe²⁺ is compatible in olivine, whilst Fe³⁺ is incompatible, causing apparent oxidation. If the melt inclusion continues to cool slowly, further crystallisation will occur on its walls.

For olivine-hosted melt inclusions, it is possible to reconstruct the initial composition of the melt if the extent of crystallisation can be estimated. This can be done by simulating dissolving olivine back into the melt inclusion composition to calculate the initial melt inclusion composition. At equilibrium, Fe²⁺ and Mg are distributed between the melt and olivine such that:

$$K_{D(Fe-Mg)}^{ol-melt} = \frac{(FeO/MgO)_{ol}}{(FeO/MgO)_{melt}} \quad (6.1)$$

where FeO and MgO are mole fractions in the olivine (ol) and melt, as indicated by the subscript (Roeder and

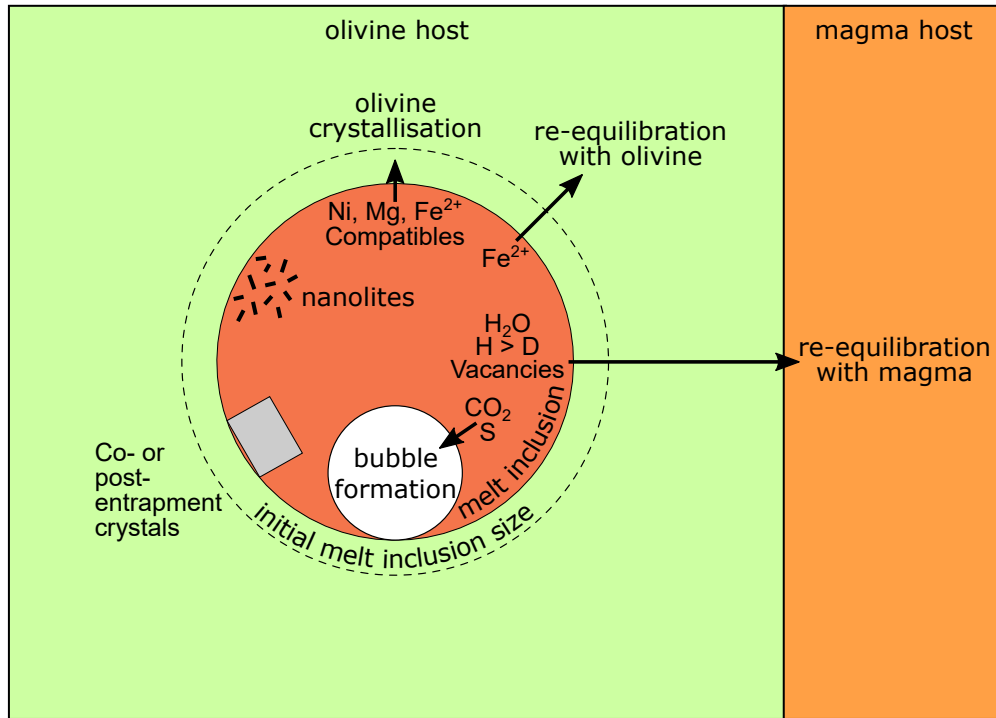


Figure 6.3: Schematic illustration of post-entrapment processes that can modify olivine-hosted melt inclusions. The melt inclusion is shown in red, the host-olivine is shown in green, and the host magma is shown in orange. The initial size of the melt inclusion is shown by the black, dashed line, which becomes the size of the red melt inclusion due to continued crystallisation of olivine on the melt inclusion walls, which removes Ni, Mg, Fe^{2+} , and other elements that are compatible in olivine from the melt. The composition of the melt inclusion can re-equilibrate with the host-olivine, which removes Fe^{2+} from the melt inclusion. It can also re-equilibrate with the host-magma, which removes H_2O from the melt inclusion if the host-magma is more dehydrated than the melt inclusion, and H will diffuse faster than D changing the δD of the melt inclusion. Bubbles (white circle) can form post-entrapment, which may sequester volatiles such as CO_2 and S. Crystals (grey rectangle) can either be co-entrapped with the melt during melt inclusion formation, or exsolve from the melt within the melt inclusion post-entrapment. Nanolites (black lines) can also precipitate from the melt within the melt inclusion. Black arrows show where species in the melt inclusion diffuse to during post-entrapment processes.

Emslie, 1970). Therefore, olivine can be ‘dissolved’ into the melt inclusion until the equilibrium $K_{\text{D}(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}}$ value has been reached. The composition of the olivine host is assumed to be that at equilibrium and remains unaffected by post-entrapment crystallisation as it is a much larger volume than the melt inclusion. Olivine contains Fe as only Fe^{2+} (i.e., FeO) but the melt contains Fe as both Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} (i.e., FeO and Fe_2O_3 , respectively). Typically, only the total Fe of the melt is known (often reported as FeO_T , all Fe as FeO) and not the Fe oxidation state. Using FeO_T , not actual FeO, to calculate $K_{\text{D}(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}}$ in Equation 6.1 gives different equilibrium values, which depend on the Fe oxidation state. Blundy et al. (2018) have empirically shown that:

$$K_{\text{D}(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}} = 0.317 \cdot \text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T \quad (6.2)$$

Melt $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ is often unknown, therefore a $K_{\text{D}(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}} \approx 0.3$ is typically used (Kress and Carmichael, 1991; Roeder and Emslie, 1970). A measured $K_{\text{D}(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}} < 0.3$ either means Fe^{3+} is present in the melt (i.e., melt $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T < 1$ at the time of melt inclusion entrapment) or post-entrapment crystallisation of olivine has

occurred (i.e., removed Mg from the melt).

Alternatively, the degree of olivine crystallisation can be estimated using Ni partitioning between the olivine and melt. Ni is very compatible in olivine, hence any post-entrapment crystallisation will reduce the Ni content of the melt inclusion. $K_{D(Ni)}^{ol-melt}$ has been parameterised empirically for MgO concentration (wt%) of the melt by Hart and Davis (1978), such that:

$$K_{D(Ni)}^{ol-melt} = \frac{124}{MgO_{melt}} - 0.9 \quad (6.3)$$

If olivine has crystallised the melt MgO will have decreased, hence this provides a maximum $K_{D(Ni)}^{ol-melt}$.

Using pyroxene as a host mineral is more complicated than olivine because it is not a binary system and it can contain both Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} in its structure. Hence, it is currently not possible to estimate the degree of post-entrapment pyroxene crystallisation.

6.2.2. Mineral-melt diffusive re-equilibration

Melt inclusions may re-equilibrate diffusively with their host mineral, modifying their composition. For instance, if the magma cools slowly there is time for the rim of olivine that crystallised post-entrapment on the walls of the melt inclusion to equilibrate with the host-olivine (Figure 6.4). The melt in the melt inclusion will then re-equilibrate with this olivine composition, by Fe^{2+} diffusing out of, and Mg into, the melt inclusion (Danyushevsky et al., 2000; Gaetani and Watson, 2002, 2000). This process can be corrected for but requires knowledge of the initial Fe content of the melt inclusions, which is unknown although bulk rock Fe is often used (e.g., Danyushevsky and Plechov, 2011; Gaetani and Watson, 2002).

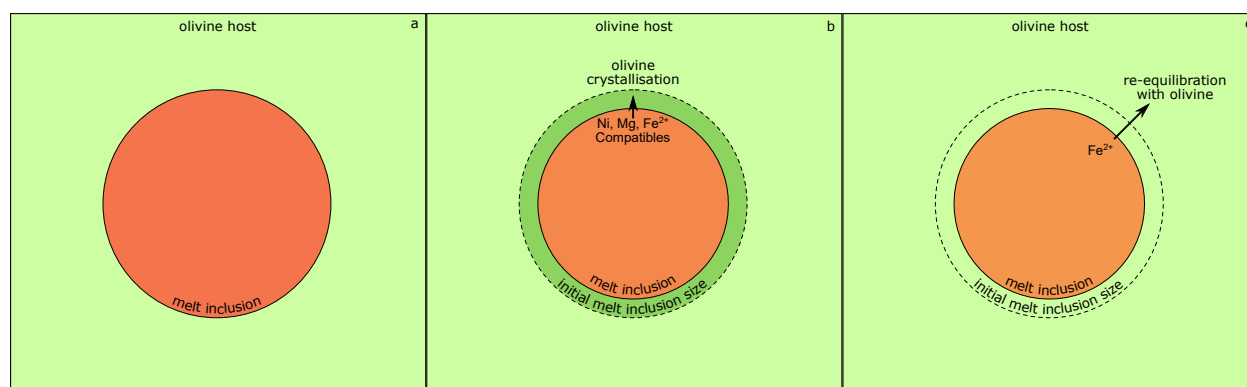


Figure 6.4: Schematic illustration showing post-entrapment modification due to olivine crystallisation followed by diffusion: **(a)** melt inclusion as trapped in olivine; **(b)** a rim of olivine has crystallised on the walls of the melt inclusion with a different composition to the host-olivine and the melt composition has also changed; and **(c)** the olivine rim diffusively equilibrates with the host-olivine and so the melt re-equilibrates with this composition by Fe^{2+} diffusion into, and Mg diffusion out of, the host-olivine.

The extent of Fe-loss can be estimated by comparing the FeO of melt inclusions and bulk rock against Fo of the olivine, which can be calculated for bulk rock using equilibrium models (e.g., Danyushevsky and Plechov, 2011). The ‘Fe-loss triangle’ is defined by two trends in FeO-Fo space: olivine crystallisation from the melt; and complete melt inclusion re-equilibration defining the greatest Fe-loss possible, which results in a negative trend between FeO and Fo (Figure 6.5). The area within this triangle is due to

partial re-equilibration and variable Fe-loss. This process is complicated by re-equilibration of fO_2 , as Fe-Mg exchange is dependent on fO_2 as shown in Equation 6.2 (Chakraborty, 1997; Jurewicz and Watson, 1988). Diffusion profiles surrounding melt inclusions can be also used to correct for Fe-loss, but are time-consuming to collect and process (Danyushevsky et al., 2000).

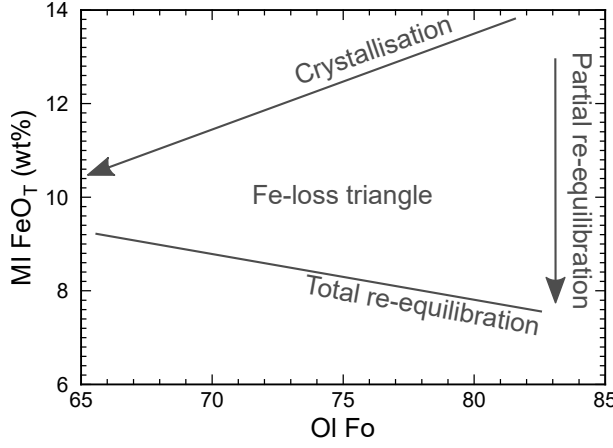


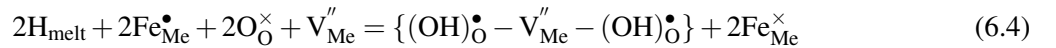
Figure 6.5: Fe-loss triangle for melt inclusion (MI) Fe concentration (where all Fe is expressed as FeO, FeO_T) against host-olivine forsterite content (Fo), where the sides of the triangle are defined by crystallisation of olivine from the host magma (the original trend in the melt inclusion composition) and partial and total re-equilibration of the melt inclusion composition (Danyushevsky et al., 2000).

This is also a problem for other minerals, but Fe-Mg exchange between olivine and melt is fast and relatively simple to model. For instance, major element diffusion rates are slower in clinopyroxene compared to olivine, therefore it is harder to re-equilibrate (Cherniak and Dimanov, 2010).

6.2.3. Magma-melt diffusive re-equilibration

Melt inclusions can also re-equilibrate with the external melt due to gradients in fH_2O and fO_2 by diffusing species through the host mineral (e.g., Gaetani et al., 2012; Hartley et al., 2017, 2015). In olivine these occur via two independent reactions, which can be denoted using Kröger-Vink notation for point defects, whereby the subscript indicates the lattice site (e.g., melt, Me = octahedral, or O = oxygen) and the superscript the effective charge (\times = neutral, \bullet = positive, and $'$ = negative).

The first reaction involves proton exchange through the olivine, which results in oxidation (conversely, reduction) of Fe in octahedral lattice sites (Fe_{Me}^{\times} and Fe_{Me}^{\bullet} for Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} , respectively) and creation (destruction) of two OH^- defects in oxygen sites ($(OH)_O^{\bullet}$) which are associated with an octahedral site metal vacancy (V_{Me}'') (Kohlstedt and Mackwell, 1998):



where additionally O_O^{\times} is an O_2^- in an oxygen site and $\{\}$ indicates associated point defects. This will modify the δD of the melt inclusion, as 1H diffuses much faster than 2D through olivine (e.g., Gaetani et al., 2012; Hauri, 2002; Shaw et al., 2008).

The second reaction involves oxygen incorporation into the olivine from the melt (conversely, oxygen loss from the olivine to the melt) via oxidation (reduction) of Fe in an octahedral site in the olivine, which creates (destroys) an octahedral site metal vacancy and causes olivine precipitation (dissolution) (Nakamura and Schmalzried, 1983):

$$O_{\text{melt}} + \frac{1}{2}[\text{SiO}_2]_{\text{melt}} + 3\text{Fe}_{\text{Me}}^{\times} = V_{\text{Me}}'' + 2\text{Fe}_{\text{Me}}^{\bullet} + \frac{1}{2}\text{Fe}_2\text{SiO}_4 \quad (6.5)$$

These reactions (Equations 6.4 and 6.5) can be combined to allow H_2O concentrations to re-equilibrate between the host-magma and the melt inclusion (Gaetani et al., 2012) via:

$$\text{H}_2\text{O}_{\text{melt}} + \frac{1}{2}[\text{SiO}_2]_{\text{melt}} + \text{Fe}_{\text{Me}}^{\times} + 2\text{O}_{\text{O}}^{\times} = \{(\text{OH})_{\text{O}}^{\bullet} - V_{\text{Me}}'' - \text{OH}_{\text{O}}^{\bullet}\}^{\times} + \frac{1}{2}\text{Fe}_2\text{SiO}_4 \quad (6.6)$$

As there is no $\text{Fe}_{\text{Me}}^{\bullet}$ in this reaction, it also can be applied to forsterite (Mg_2SiO_4). Reactions via Equations 6.4 and 6.5 occur independently, hence H_2O equilibration is not limited by the Fe oxidation state of the melt inclusion (Gaetani et al., 2012). Similar problems are not encountered for CO_2 as the solubility and diffusivity of carbon in olivine are extremely low (Keppler et al., 2003; Tingle et al., 1988). Understanding these reactions in pyroxenes is more complicated.

Typically, these reactions cause dehydration of melt inclusions if the surrounding magma is more degassed, such as stalling in a shallow magma chamber or slowly cooling in a lava flow, but can result in hydration, if surrounding magma is more hydrous, such as during magma mixing (e.g., Hartley et al., 2017, 2015). Changes in $f\text{O}_2$ can be the result of S degassing or magma mixing events (e.g., Hartley et al., 2017; Moussallam et al., 2014). The extent of melt inclusion re-equilibration depends on the size of the inclusion and the host, the relative position of the melt inclusion within the host, temperature, and $f\text{H}_2\text{O}$ or $f\text{O}_2$ gradient. Small, H_2O -rich melt inclusions in a degassed magma will re-equilibrate H_2O faster due to their smaller volume, greater surface area to volume ratio, and large $f\text{H}_2\text{O}$ gradient (e.g., Bucholz et al., 2013). Re-equilibration of $f\text{O}_2$ and $f\text{H}_2\text{O}$ have knock-on effects to the concentration of other volatile species in melt inclusions, such as CO_2 and S (Bucholz et al., 2013; Hartley et al., 2017).

6.2.4. Bubble formation

During cooling, ascent, post-entrapment host-crystallisation (due both to continued crystallisation because of cooling, Section 6.2.1, and in response to $f\text{O}_2$ re-equilibration, Section 6.2.3), and melt inclusion dehydration (Section 6.2.3), the pressure inside the melt inclusion decreases. This often leads to the formation of a bubble or possibly decrepitation of the melt inclusion (e.g., Bucholz et al., 2013; Lowenstern, 2003, 1995; MacLennan, 2017; Métrich et al., 2009; Roedder, 1979; Schiano, 2003). The bubble can simply be a vacuum, or it can contain fluids if volatiles from the melt are able to diffuse into the bubble (e.g., Anderson and Brown, 1993; Hartley et al., 2014; Roedder, 1979; Steele-Macinnis et al., 2011). The composition of the fluid in the bubble can be measured using Raman spectroscopy (e.g., Moore et al., 2015). Unfortunately, this is associated with large errors as it is difficult accurately to estimate the bubble volume.

Notwithstanding these issues, up to 90 % of the CO_2 content of melt inclusions has been measured in their bubbles (e.g., Hartley et al., 2014). Consequently, neglecting the CO_2 content in the bubbles can lead to vast underestimations of the CO_2 concentration of melt inclusions (e.g., Hartley et al., 2014; Wallace et al., 2015). This assumes the fluid in these bubbles was originally in the melt when the melt inclusion was formed, which is not the case if the bubble was co-entrapped at the time of melt inclusion formation. Similarly, S concentrations have been seen to decrease during melt inclusion dehydration and it is therefore presumed that S has been sequestered into bubbles (e.g., Bucholz et al., 2013). H_2O , F, and Cl appear to

be less affected by this problem (e.g., Robidoux et al., 2018). The fluid phases in the bubble have also been found to precipitate out on the bubble walls, forming carbonate phases during cooling (Moore et al., 2015; Mathez and Delaney, 1981). During bubble formation, CO₂ (and other volatiles) will isotopically fractionate under either kinetic or equilibrium conditions (Section 5.1.1), which will change the isotope ratio of the melt.

6.2.5. Crystallisation

Crystallisation of daughter minerals can occur within the melt inclusion, which will change the melt inclusion composition. Sometimes the melt inclusion can completely recrystallise if the cooling rate is slow enough, requiring homogenisation to measure the original composition (e.g., Nielsen et al., 1998). Also, re-equilibration of fO_2 in melt inclusions can cause sulphide precipitation (Hartley et al., 2017).

Nanolites are nano-crystals (30–1000 nm in diameter; Mujin et al., 2017) that can change the viscosity of magmas by two orders of magnitude and provide nucleation sites for bubbles (Di Genova et al., 2018, 2017a; Mujin et al., 2017; Mujin and Nakamura, 2014). Hence, depending on when they form, they can have a major impact on magma rheology and eruption dynamics. Typically, they form on the quench, during ascent and degassing, as the glass passes through the glass transition (Di Genova et al., 2017a; Mujin et al., 2017; Mujin and Nakamura, 2014). Their formation depends on quench rate, melt viscosity, H₂O, and Fe oxidation state (e.g., Appendix F, Di Genova et al., 2018, 2017a).

6.3. Methods

6.3.1. Sample collection and preparation

Scoria clasts 11.2–31.5 mm (-3.5 to -5 ϕ) in size were collected in 2015, from an area known to contain only clasts from the 23 November 2013 eruption (37.762915 °N 15.046130 °E) (Figure 6.1). Small clasts were selected, as these were assumed to have cooled rapidly thereby limiting the extent of post-entrapment modification of melt inclusion composition after eruption (Lloyd et al., 2013). Smaller clasts (<11.2 mm) were not collected to avoid contaminating the sample with fine lapilli from previous fallout eruptions.

To liberate crystals, scoria clasts were repeatedly lightly crushed and sieved between 250 μ m and 1 mm. Olivine and pyroxene crystals were hand-picked under a binocular microscope. To find melt inclusions, crystals of primarily olivine were placed in a glass dish and ethanol was added to cover all crystals. Ethanol has a higher refractive index than air, hence it is easier to see into the crystals and check for melt inclusions under a binocular microscope. Crystals containing melt inclusions were individually mounted in epoxy, ground, and polished to a \sim 1–3 μ m finish to expose the melt inclusion at the surface. Additionally, many crystals were mounted together in epoxy mounts, then ground, and polished to a \sim 1–3 μ m finish for mineral chemistry analysis. Any melt inclusions intersected in these mounts were also analysed.

Melt inclusions were analysed using Raman (H₂O and nanolites), SIMS (CO₂, H₂O, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and δD), and EPMA (majors, minors, volatiles, including H₂O using VBD, and Fe²⁺/Fe_T) (Table 6.2). When multiple analyses were carried out on the same melt inclusion the order was: Raman (single analysis for both H₂O and nanolites), SIMS (δD), SIMS ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$), SIMS (CO₂ and H₂O), EPMA (majors, minors, and volatiles), then EPMA (Fe²⁺/Fe_T). Raman is non-destructive and therefore was carried out first. EPMA was used

Table 6.2: Overview of methods applied to melt inclusions and minerals.

Technique	Phase	Variable
Raman	Melt inclusion	H ₂ O and nanolites (Section 6.3.2)
SIMS	Melt inclusion	CO ₂ and H ₂ O (Section 4.2.2) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Section 4.3.2) δD (Section 6.3.3)
EPMA	Melt inclusion	Majors, minors, and volatiles (Section 2.5.3) VBD (Section 2.5.4) Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T (Section 3.3.2)
	Olivine, pyroxene and plagioclase inclusions	Majors and minors (Section 6.3.4)

last as it causes hydrogen migration and nanolite formation, which would effect Raman and SIMS analyses (Humphreys et al., 2006, Section 3.5). Fe²⁺/Fe_T using EPMA was analysed last as it causes the most severe beam damage due to the analytical conditions required (Section 3.3.2). Olivine and pyroxene crystals, and plagioclase inclusions, were analysed using EPMA (majors and minors).

6.3.2. Raman spectroscopy

Raman spectroscopy was used to measure the H₂O concentration and identify the presence of nanolites in melt inclusions (e.g., Di Genova et al., 2018, 2017b). Monochromatic light from a laser is used to excite chemical bonds in the glass, putting them into a virtual energy state by absorbing a photon. These virtual energy states quickly decay and most of the photons emitted are of the same energy as those absorbed (Rayleigh scattering). A small proportion of the photons are emitted with a different energy, reflecting characteristic molecular vibrations. This shift in energy emitted (up or down) is called Raman scattering and gives rise to the Raman spectrum. Different bonds have different wavelengths to which the monochromatic light is shifted, hence Raman spectra can be used to fingerprint which species are present. For instance Fe-bearing nanolites produce a peak due to magnetite at $\sim 670\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Di Genova et al., 2017a,b) and H₂O produces a peak at $\sim 3600\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (e.g., Di Muro et al., 2006; Di Genova et al., 2017b).

Raman spectra were collected using the Thermo Scientific DXRxi Raman Imaging Microscope at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, UK. Melt inclusions exposed at the surface, mounted in epoxy and polished to a $\sim 1\text{--}3\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ finish were analysed. A green (520 nm) laser, 10 \times or 50 \times (long distance) objective, and an extended grating ($0\text{--}5000\text{ cm}^{-1}$) were used, with a power of 3–5 mW to avoid sample oxidation (Di Genova et al., 2017b). Spectra were corrected for temperature and the frequency-dependent scattering of intensity (Long, 1977), and background-corrected using the R code of Di Genova et al. (2017b) prior to processing. Spectra were visually checked for the presence of olivine contamination, which prevents quantitative analysis of the spectra (Figure 6.6).

To quantify the amount of nanolites present, Di Genova et al. (2018) defined the degree of nanolitisation (N#) as:

$$\text{N\#} = \frac{I_{670-690}}{I_{785-795}} \quad (6.7)$$

where $I_{670-690}$ is the average intensity for the magnetite peak ($670\text{--}690\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and $I_{785-795}$ is the average

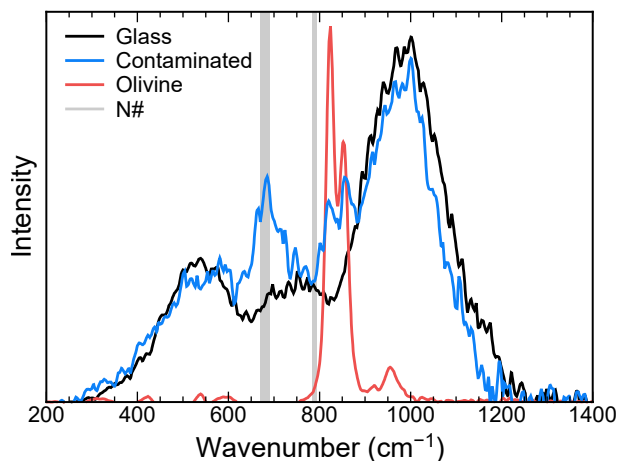


Figure 6.6: Example raman spectra in the low-wavelength region (LW) of a basaltic glass (black), olivine (red), and basaltic glass containing nanolites and contaminated with host olivine (blue). The vertical grey lines are the wavenumbers used in Equation 6.7 of magnetite (670–690 cm^{-1} , thick) and the peak associated with the melt Fe oxidation state (785–795 cm^{-1} , thin).

intensity of the peak associated with the glass Fe oxidation state (785–795 cm^{-1}) (Figure 6.6). This was based on the observation by Di Genova et al. (2018) that the magnetite peak increased, whilst the Fe oxidation state of the glass reduced, due to Fe_2O_3 transfer from the melt to the nanolites during formation. The error on N# was calculated by combining the standard deviations of the intensities between these wavenumbers in quadrature.

The method of Di Genova et al. (2017b) was used to quantify the H_2O concentration, where the area of the H_2O peak 2700–4000 cm^{-1} (high wavenumber region, HW) is proportional to the H_2O concentration (Figure 6.7). The further below the surface of the glass the spectra are collected, the more absorption occurs for the whole spectra, reducing the area under the H_2O peak. To correct for this, the area of the H_2O peak (HW) is normalised to the silicate peak region (low wavenumber region, LW, <1500 cm^{-1}). Spectra containing nanolites cannot be processed in this way as the magnetite peak at $\sim 670 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ changes the area of the silicate peaks (LW) (Di Genova et al., 2017b). This changes the normalisation procedure; hence H_2O concentrations were not estimated for nanolite-bearing glasses. Di Genova et al. (2017b) found the Fe concentration effected the quantification of H_2O . Hence, the area of the H_2O peak (HW) divided by the silica peak region (LW) is multiplied by a coefficient dependent on the Fe concentration (all Fe expressed as FeO , FeO_T) measured using EPMA, where:

$$\text{H}_2\text{O} = [(0.096 \cdot \text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T) + 0.663] \times \frac{\text{HW}}{\text{LW}} \quad (6.8)$$

from Di Genova et al. (2017b). Sometimes it was not possible to analyse a melt inclusion using EPMA (e.g., it was polished away during SIMS preparation), hence no FeO_T value was available. In this case, the average FeO_T concentration of all analysed melt inclusions was used.

Data were collected during two analytical sessions. The H_2O concentration calculated using Equation 6.8 did not reproduce the H_2O concentration of basaltic glasses with known H_2O run during each session (Figure 6.8). For session one, ETNA glasses (ETNA05, ETNA24–ETNA26, and ETNA31–ETNA36, Tables 4.10 and 5.6) were used; and for session two MAS.1.A (4, 5, 6, 9, 10, and 10b in Table B.1) from Lesne et al. (2011) were used. This implies the empirical calibration of Di Genova et al. (2017b) is instrument specific and may change with time. Hence, an empirical correction to the H_2O concentration was performed, using the basaltic glasses with known H_2O concentration (Figure 6.8).

Figure 6.7: Example raman spectra in the high-wavelength region (HW) of a basaltic glass. The peak between 2700–4000 cm^{-1} is due to dissolved H_2O in the glass.

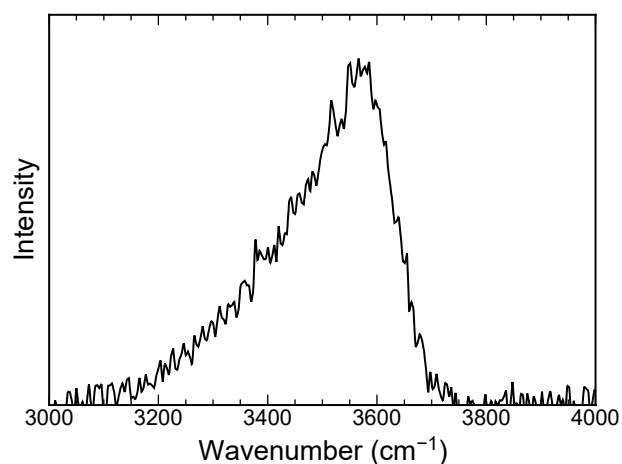
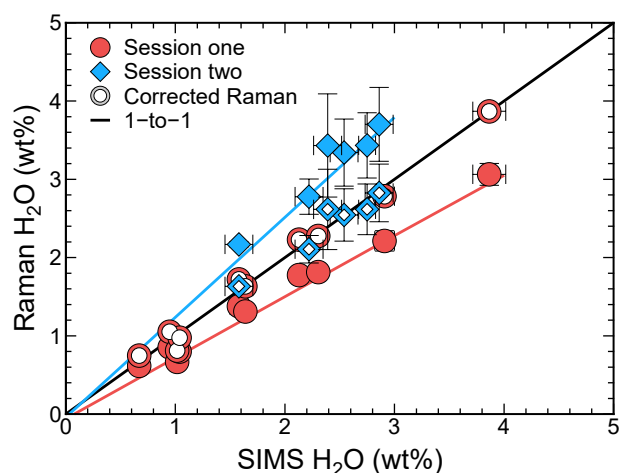


Figure 6.8: Empirical corrections for Raman H_2O : session one in blue uses ETNA05, ETNA24–ETNA26, and ETNA31–ETNA36; and session two in red uses MAS.1.A 4, 5, 6, 9, 10, and 10b.



6.3.3. Secondary ion mass spectrometry

SIMS was used to measure the concentration and isotope ratio of carbon and hydrogen dissolved in melt inclusions. Exposed melt inclusions were extracted from epoxy mounts and pressed into indium, then gold coated (~ 40 – 80 nm thickness) for analysis at the Edinburgh Ion Microprobe Facility, School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, UK.

First, δD and H_2O were measured on the Cameca 1270 using a O_2^- primary beam at 22.5 kV impact energy and 12 nA current. Secondary positive ions were extracted at 10 kV and no energy filtering was used meaning low energy ions were measured with a 100 eV energy window. A mass resolution of 2000 was used. As it takes a long time for the magnet to stabilise when jumping between mass-charge ratios of ~ 2 and ~ 1 , extra time was spent before measuring $^1\text{H}^+$ to stabilise the magnet and check the peak was centred. $^1\text{H}^+$ was measured using a Faraday cup whilst $^2\text{D}^+$ and $^1\text{H}_2^+$ were measured using electron multipliers. Count and wait times are detailed in Table 6.3 and 80 cycles were collected for each analysis. External basaltic glasses GLD48, EN6D, and EN41 (Table 6.4); and ETNA glasses (ETNA02, ETNA03, ETNA06, ETNA07, ETNA11–ETNA17, ETNA24–ETNA27, ETNA29, ETNA30, and ETNA36) from Chapters 4 and 5 (compositions in Tables 4.10 and 5.6) were analysed as standards. The spatial resolution of these analyses is $22.5 \times 37.0 \mu\text{m}$ by SE-SEM imaging of the analysis pit using the Carl Zeiss SIGMA HD VP Field Emission SEM at the School of Geosciences, University of Edinburgh, UK, as described in Section 4.3.3 (Figure 6.9).

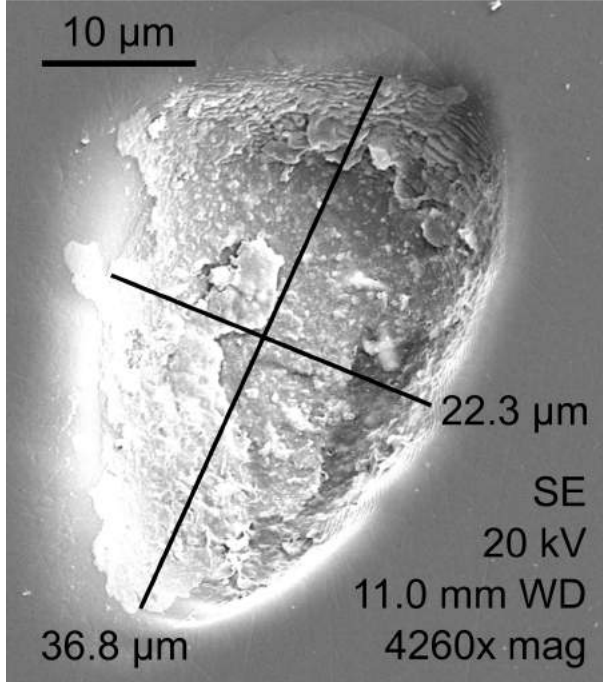
Table 6.3: Species analysed for δD and H_2O analysis, including count and wait times.

Species	Magnet delay	Peak centring	$^1H^+$	$^2D^+$	$^1H_2^+$
Count time (s)	0.5	0.5	4	12	4
Wait time (s)	4	0.5	0.5	3	1

Table 6.4: Composition of external basaltic glass standards for δD and H_2O SIMS analysis.

Oxide (wt%)	EN6D	EN41	GLD48
SiO ₂	50.42	49.81	48.29
TiO ₂	2.20	2.54	2.84
Al ₂ O ₃	15.40	16.27	15.82
FeO _T	10.12	10.09	12.25
MnO	0.19	0.15	0.22
MgO	7.02	7.14	5.38
CaO	11.41	10.18	9.13
Na ₂ O	3.06	3.02	3.57
K ₂ O	0.20	0.45	0.87
P ₂ O ₅	0.28	0.30	0.50
H ₂ O	0.74	0.45	1.07
δD (‰)	-51.1 ± 2.7	-65.7 ± 2.5	-52.7 ± 2.5

Notes: Data are from EPMA (Pan and Batiza, 1998; Schilling et al., 1985), except H₂O and δD which are measured using TCEA (Dixon et al., 2017; Kingsley et al., 2002). Errors of one standard deviation are shown for δD .


Figure 6.9: Secondary electron scanning electron microscopy (SE-SEM) image of the δD SIMS analysis pit.

$^1H^+$, $^2D^+$, and $^1H_2^+$ counts were corrected for Faraday cup background and deadtime. For δD quantification, $^2D^+/^1H^+$ ratios were calculated. As the background H_2 was low, $^1H_2^+$ was directly proportional to $^1H^+$, as its production is governed by the probability of two 1H coming together and hence $^1H_2^+/^1H^+$ will be proportional to H_2O . At low H_2O concentrations, even the low $^1H_2^+$ backgrounds can lead to artificially high H_2O concentrations, hence $^1H^+/PB$ (where PB is the average probe current measured before and

after analysis) was also calculated. External drift was monitored using GLD48 and ETNA24, which were analysed regularly throughout the day, and linear fits to the drift were fitted in sections (Figures 6.10a, c, and e). External drift was corrected for by dividing $^2\text{D}^+/\text{H}^+$, $^1\text{H}_2^+/\text{H}^+$, and $^1\text{H}^+/\text{PB}$ by the corresponding calculated value of the standard at the time of measurement, with a correction factor applied when switching between GLD48 and ETNA24 to keep the data consistent. Weighted (using the error on the SIMS data) least squares calibration curves using the external basaltic glass standards (GLD48, EN6D, and EN41) and ETNA glasses were constructed for known δD against $^2\text{D}^+/\text{H}^+$ (Figure 6.10b), and H_2O (wt%) against $^1\text{H}_2^+/\text{H}^+$ (Figure 6.10d) and $^1\text{H}^+/\text{PB}$ (Figure 6.10e). H_2O concentrations calculated from $^1\text{H}_2^+/\text{H}^+$ and $^1\text{H}^+/\text{PB}$, where either value was <0.2 wt% H_2O , were rejected as the $^1\text{H}^+$ counts would be too low to derive meaningful δD .

Melt inclusions were subsequently analysed for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ as described in Section 4.3.2 for set-up one ($^{12}\text{C}^-$ – $^{13}\text{C}^-$, Table 4.12), except that 140 cycles were collected instead of 100. Raw count data for $^{12}\text{C}^-$ and $^{13}\text{C}^-$ were checked to ensure they showed smooth changes with time for all melt inclusions analysed to ensure the analysis had not intersected a microlite or fluid inclusion, which resulted in rapid, noisy changes in counts (Figure 6.11). Noisy data were removed and, if sufficient data remained, the rest of the data were processed for carbon isotope ratios. Melt inclusions were then plucked from the indium mount, mounted in dental resin, re-polished to expose fresh glass, then repressed into indium and gold coated. Concentrations of CO_2 and H_2O were then analysed as described for ETNA31–ETNA36 in Section 4.2.2.

The melt inclusions analysed for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ had low CO_2 concentrations (50–460 ppm CO_2), and hence suffered from carbon contamination during analysis. Therefore, only the highest CO_2 melt inclusion was used (460 ppm CO_2) and its measured $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-10.8 ‰) was corrected for carbon contamination using Equation 4.8 (assuming the contamination was 110 ppm CO_2 with -34 ± 10 ‰). This gave a $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -5.3 ± 2.4 ‰, which may still be affected by contamination in the initial calibration curve.

6.3.4. Electron probe micro-analysis

EPMA was used to measure the major, minor, and volatile element chemistry of minerals and glasses (Chapter 2) and Fe oxidation state (Chapter 3) of glasses. All EPMA data was collected on the JEOL JXA 8530F Hyperprobe at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, UK. Minerals and exposed melt inclusions were mounted in epoxy, polished to a $\sim 1\text{--}3$ μm finish, and carbon coated (~ 15 nm) for analysis.

Minerals

The major and minor element mineral chemistry of olivine and pyroxene were analysed using an accelerating voltage of 15 or 20 kV, beam current of 20 nA, and a beam size of 1 μm . A similar spectrometer set-up (2 TAP, 2 PET, and 1 LIF) used for the analysis of the glass composition was used to allow analysis of minerals and melt inclusions in the same session without crystal-switching, which can effect peak positions. Count times were chosen to achieve a ~ 1 % relative error (Equation 2.4). Mean atomic number (MAN) backgrounds were used (Donovan and Tingle, 1996, Section 2.5.3). Peak positions were selected using the highest intensity on a smoothed wavescan. Spectrometer set-up, primary standards for peaking and calibration, and count times are detailed in Tables 6.5 and 6.6 for olivine and pyroxene, respectively. Six to ten 10 s analyses were collected for calibration, and a defocused beam of 10 μm was used on albite as it can

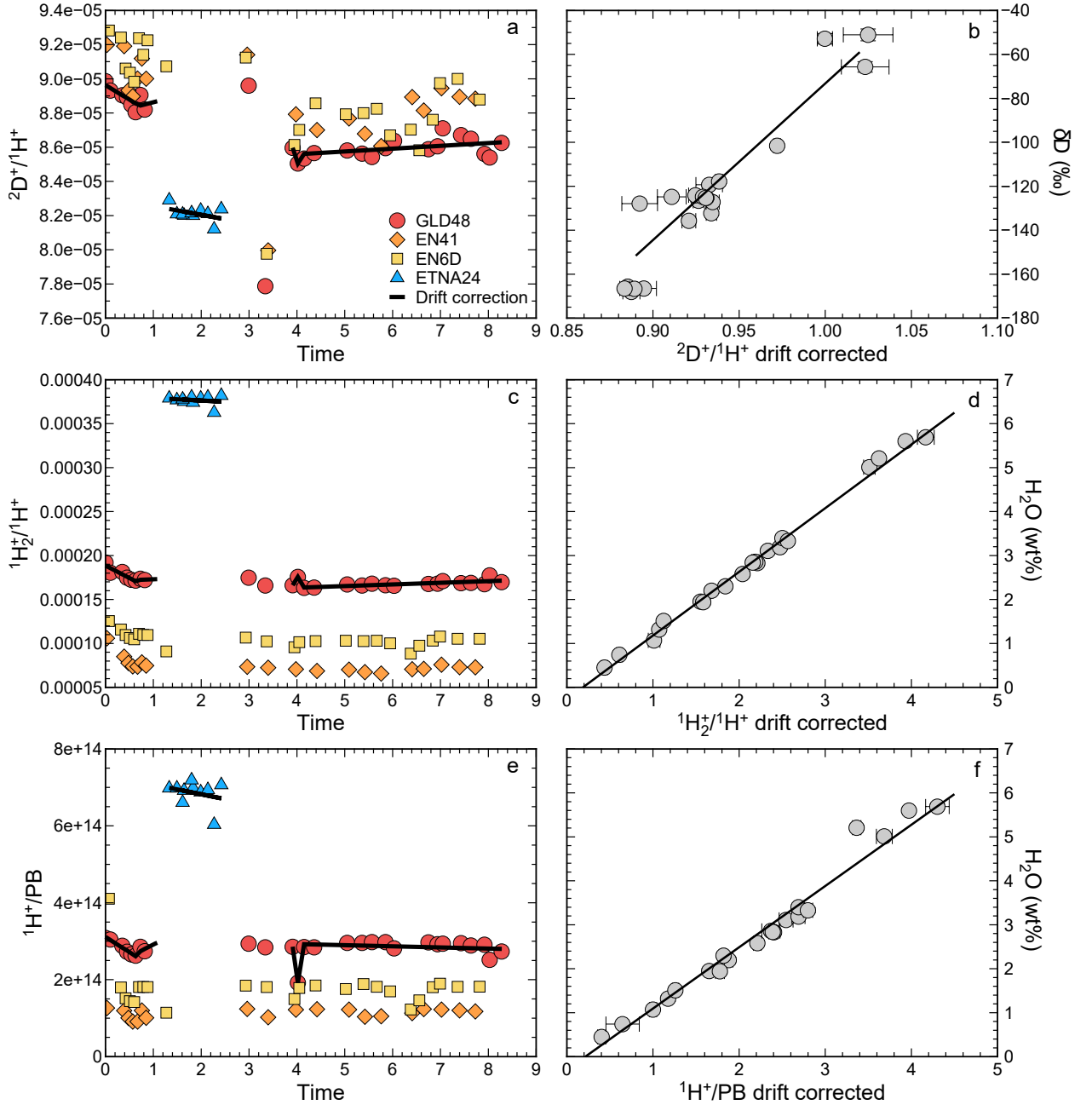


Figure 6.10: Drift corrections are shown in (a), (c), and (e) and calibrations in (b), (d), and (f) for (a)–(b) $^2\text{D}^+/\text{H}^+$, (c)–(d) $^1\text{H}_2^+/\text{H}^+$, and (e)–(f) $^1\text{H}^+/\text{PB}$. Weighted (using the error on the SIMS data) least squares regression lines are shown in (b), (d), and (f).

be unstable under a focused beam. Secondary standards were SH11 and Navajo for olivine, and diopside and KK1 for pyroxene (Table 6.7). The Armstrong-Love Scott $\phi(\rho Z)$ matrix correction was used and oxygen was calculated by stoichiometry. Additionally, the set-up in Table 6.8 was used to analyse the occasional plagioclase inclusion using a 3 μm beam diameter, where SPH was used as a secondary standard (Table 6.7).

Melt inclusions

The major, minor and volatile (S, Cl, F, and H₂O using volatiles by difference) element chemistry of melt inclusions was measured as described in Sections 2.5.3 and 2.5.4. Data were collected over two analytical

Figure 6.11: Example of a $^{12}\text{C}^-$ sputter curve for a melt inclusion where the beam may have intersected a fluid inclusion. Data highlighted in red were rejected from further processing.

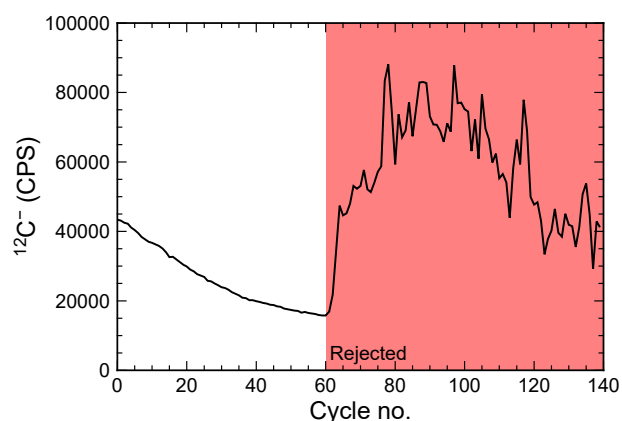


Table 6.5: Analytical details for EPMA of olivine.

Spectrometer – Crystal				
1 – PETJ	2 – TAP	3 – TAPH	4 – PETH	5 – LIFL
CaK α (150)	SiK α (30)	NaK α (110)	PK α (150)	FeK α (30)
<i>Wollastonite</i>	<i>Albite</i>	<i>Albite</i>	<i>Durango apatite</i>	<i>Andradite</i>
	AlK α (30)	MgK α (30)		MnK α (60)
	<i>Sanidine</i>	<i>SJIO</i>		<i>Mn metal</i>
				NiK α (60)
				<i>Ni metal</i>

Notes: Elements in order of analysis from top to bottom, peak count times (s) in brackets, and primary standards under each element in *italics* where SJIO is St Johns Island Olivine. Standard compositions are given in Table 2.3.

Table 6.6: Analytical details for EPMA of pyroxene.

Spectrometer – Crystal				
1 – PETJ	2 – TAP	3 – TAPH	4 – PETH	5 – LIFL
CaK α (30)	SiK α (30)	NaK α (90)	KK α (120)	FeK α (60)
<i>Wollastonite</i>	<i>Albite</i>	<i>Albite</i>	<i>Sanidine</i>	<i>Andradite</i>
TiK α (60)	AlK α (30)	MgK α (60)		MnK α (60)
<i>TiO₂</i>	<i>Sanidine</i>	<i>SJIO</i>		<i>Mn metal</i>
				CrK α (60)
				<i>Cr₂O₃</i>

Notes: Elements in order of analysis from top to bottom, peak count times (s) in brackets, and primary standards under each element in *italics* where SJIO is St Johns Island Olivine. Standard compositions are given in Table 2.3.

sessions with slightly different set-ups, outlined in Table 6.8.

Fe oxidation state was measured using EPMA as described in Chapter 3.3.2, except NiK α was measured on spectrometer 4 using a LILF instead of KK α on a PETH, to measure the Ni concentration in the glass (Table 6.9). For Ni quantification, Ni-metal was used as a standard for finding the peak positions and calibration, MAN backgrounds were used, no TDI correction was applied, and the glass composition as measured by EPMA (majors and minors) and SIMS (H₂O) was specified for the matrix correction. PU glasses (glass composition in Table B.1 and Ni concentration in Table 6.10) were used as secondary standards.

Table 6.7: Compositions of secondary mineral standards for EPMA.

Oxide (wt%)	Diopside	KK1	Navajo	SH11	SPH
SiO ₂	54.981	40.33	41.27	40.74	53.26
TiO ₂		5.75	0.00	0.01	
Al ₂ O ₃	0.567	14.62	0.01	0.05	29.81
FeO _T	0.618	9.61	8.41	10.17	0.33
MnO		0.06	0.12	0.14	
MgO	17.993	7.97	49.98	48.79	0.10
CaO	25.829	13.22	0.09	0.09	12.16
Na ₂ O		2.57		0.02	4.37
K ₂ O		2.12			0.28
P ₂ O ₅				0.02	

Notes: KK1 is an amphibole, Navajo and SH11 are olivines, and SPH is a plagioclase. FeO_T is all Fe reported as FeO.

Table 6.8: Set-up for major, minor, and volatile element chemistry using EPMA of melt inclusions.

Spectrometer – Crystal				
1 – PETJ	2 – TAP	3 – TAPH	4 – PETH	5 – LIFL
CaK α^a (60/30)	SiK α^a (60/30)	NaK α^a (30)	KK α^a (120)	FeK α^a (60)
<i>Wollastonite</i>	<i>BCR-2</i>	<i>Albite</i>	<i>Sanidine</i>	<i>Andradite</i>
<i>BCR-2</i>		<i>BCR-2</i>		<i>BCR-2</i>
TiK α (60)	AlK α (60/30)	MgK α (60)	PK α (60)	MnK α (60/180)
<i>TiO₂</i>	<i>BCR-2</i>	<i>SJIO</i>	<i>Durango apatite</i>	<i>Mn metal</i>
		<i>BCR-2</i>		
ClK α (60/150)		FK α^b (120)	SK α (60)	
<i>NaCl</i>		<i>MgF₂</i>	<i>VG-2</i>	
			<i>Barite</i>	

Notes: Elements in order of analysis from top to bottom; peak count times (s) in brackets – if two numbers are present these represent the count times used in the two different sessions; and primary standards used to find the peak position are under each element in *italics* followed by the standard for calibration if different. BCR-2 is the USGS basaltic glass standard Columbia River Basalt, SJIO is St Johns Island Olivine and VG-2 the Smithsonian Microbeam Juan de Fuca basaltic glass standard. MAN backgrounds were used. ^a TDI data collected to extrapolate to time zero in case of element migration using 6 intervals. ^b Only analysed during session two. Standard compositions are given in Tables 2.3 and 2.4.

Table 6.9: Set-up for Fe oxidation state and Ni concentration using EPMA on melt inclusions.

Spectrometer – Crystal				
1 – TAP	2 – TAP	3 – TAPH	4 – LILF	5 – LIFL
FeL α_f (150)	FeL α_f (150)	FeL β_f (150)	NiK α (150)	FeK α^a (150)
			<i>Ni-metal</i>	<i>BCR-2</i>

Notes: Flank positions (FeL α_f and FeL β_f) chosen as outlined in Section 3.3.2. Count times (s) are in brackets and primary standards used are under each element in *italics*. TDI was collected on all elements but was not used for quantification of Ni. Only Ni was quantified, using MAN backgrounds and the glass composition was specified for the matrix correction using EPMA (majors and minors) and SIMS (H₂O) data. Standard compositions are given in Table 2.4.

Table 6.10: Independent and EPMA Ni concentration for PU glasses.

Glass	Independent Ni (ppm)	EPMA Ni (ppm)	<i>s.d.</i>
PU32	387	358	<i>84</i>
PU58	360	342	<i>64</i>
PU359	288	320	<i>88</i>
PU361	463	424	<i>61</i>
<i>Notes:</i> Independent Ni from Blundy et al. (2018) using EPMA, and errors of one standard deviation (<i>s.d.</i>) are shown for EPMA Ni in <i>italics</i> .			

6.4. Mineral and melt inclusion compositions

6.4.1. Minerals

Olivine, pyroxene, plagioclase, and oxide were present, but only olivine and pyroxene were analysed (data are available in Appendix H). As crystals were picked from crushed scoria, it was not possible to measure mineral modal abundances. Where the groundmass material, which consists of microlite-bearing glass (Figure 6.12c), is still attached to the crystal, olivine and pyroxene have (sub-)euhedral crystal faces (Figure 6.12). Both olivine and pyroxene contain abundant inclusions of melt and oxide, and pyroxene also contains inclusions of plagioclase (Figure 6.12).

Olivine (number of analyses, n , = 282; data are available in Table H.1) is Fo_{65–83} where forsterite (Fo) is:

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{100 \cdot \text{Mg}}{\text{Fe} + \text{Mg}} \quad (6.9)$$

where Fe and Mg are the number of ions in the formula. Olivine composition has a bimodal distribution, with modes at Fo₇₂ and Fo₈₁ (Figure 6.13). Olivine contains trace amounts of MnO (0.24–0.90 wt%, detection limit (dl) = 92 ppm), CaO (0.12–0.44 wt%, dl = 57 ppm), Na₂O (below detection limit (bdl)–0.04 wt%, dl = 89 ppm) that negatively correlate with Fo; NiO (bdl–0.11 wt%, dl = 105 ppm) that positively correlates with Fo; and P₂O₅ (bdl–0.10 wt%, dl = 57 ppm) and Al₂O₃ (0.02–0.09 wt%, dl = 86 ppm) that do not correlate with Fo (Figure 6.14).

Pyroxene (n = 68; data are available in Table H.2) is Wo_{46–56}En_{40–45}Fs_{3–11} where:

$$X = \frac{100 \cdot Y}{\text{Mg} + \text{Fe} + \text{Ca}} \quad (6.10)$$

where X is the end-member (wollastonite – Wo, enstatite – En, and ferrosilite – Fs), and Y is the element (Mg, Fe, and Ca for Wo, En, and Fs, respectively) in number of ions in the formula, and Fe has been redistributed as Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ to maintain stoichiometry and charge balance (Lindsley, 1983). Pyroxene composition is unimodally distributed with mean and one standard deviation ($\pm 1\sigma$) of 51.1 ± 1.8 Wo, 7.1 ± 1.6 Fs and 41.9 ± 1.3 En (Figure 6.15). Pyroxene contains minor amounts of TiO₂ (0.59–2.08 wt%, dl = 329 ppm) that correlates positively with Wo. Pyroxene contains trace amounts of MnO (0.07–0.46 wt%, dl = 168 ppm) that correlates negatively with Wo; and Na₂O (0.24–0.65 wt%, dl = 123 ppm), K₂O (bdl–0.02 wt%, dl = 37 ppm) and Cr₂O₃ (bdl–0.35 wt%, dl = 410 ppm) that do not correlate with Wo (Figure 6.16).

Plagioclase inclusions ($n = 5$; data are available in Table H.3) are $An_{79-92}Or_{0-2}Ab_{8-20}$ where:

$$X = \frac{100 \cdot Y}{Ca + K + Na} \quad (6.11)$$

where X is the end-member (anorthite – An, orthoclase – Or, and albite – Ab) and Y is the element (Ca, K, and Na for An, Or, and Ab, respectively) in number of ions in the formula.

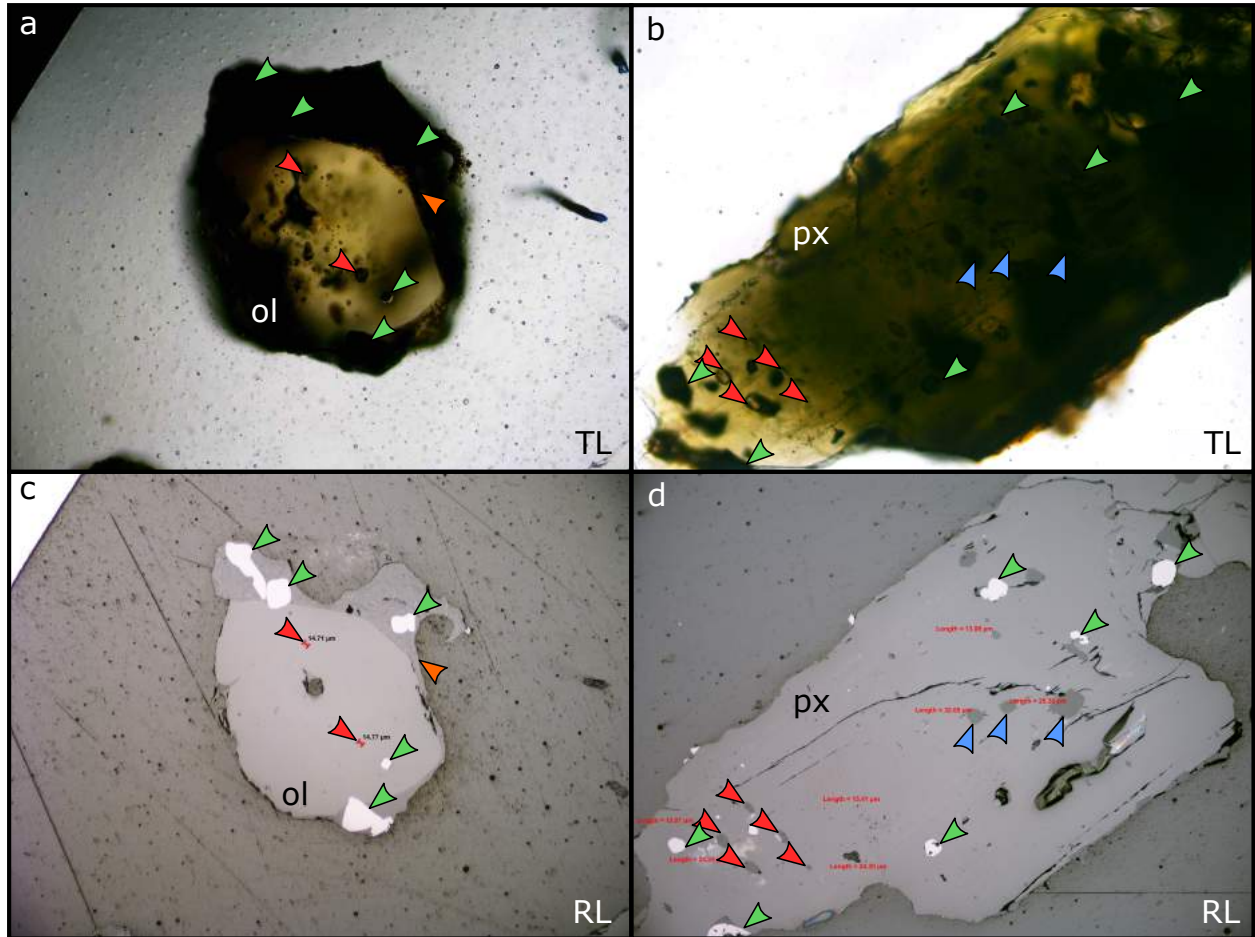


Figure 6.12: Example annotated photomicroscope images in transmitted light (TL) in (a) and (b) and reflected light (RL) in (c) and (d) (indicated in the bottom right corner) of olivine (ol) in (a) and (c) and pyroxene (px) in (b) and (d). Red annotations in (c) and (d) are melt inclusion sizes, but are not meant to be legible. The colour and orientation (direction arrow is pointing to) of the arrow indicates the phase highlighted: red bottom-right arrows are melt inclusions, blue top-right arrows are plagioclase inclusions, green bottom-left arrows are oxides, and orange top-right arrows are groundmass glass (not all appearances of each phase are indicated for clarity).

6.4.2. Melt inclusions

Data for all melt inclusions, embayments, and groundmass glass can be found in Tables H.4–H.7. Melt inclusions analysed were hosted in olivine (Fo_{66-82}) and pyroxene ($Wo_{48-56}En_{40-43}Fs_{3-8}$) (Table H.4). Melt inclusions vary greatly in size (5–100 μm in diameter), but most are 20–30 μm in diameter (Figure 6.17). Olivine-hosted melt inclusions are typically rounded and isolated (Figure 6.17a), although melt inclusion assemblages do occur (Figure 6.17b), and some melt inclusions occur along growth faces (Figure

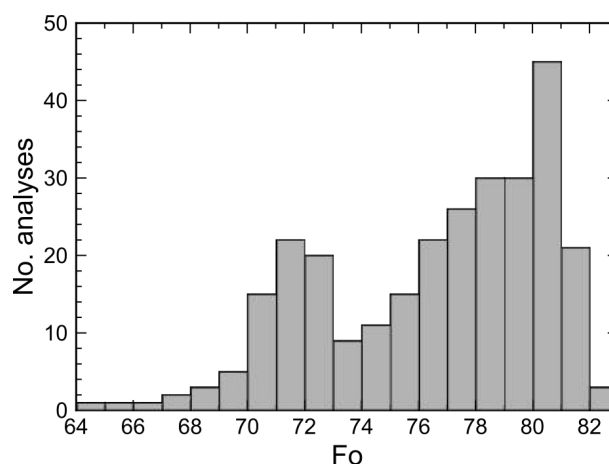


Figure 6.13: Histogram of olivine forsterite (Fo) content ($n = 282$). Data are available in Table H.1.

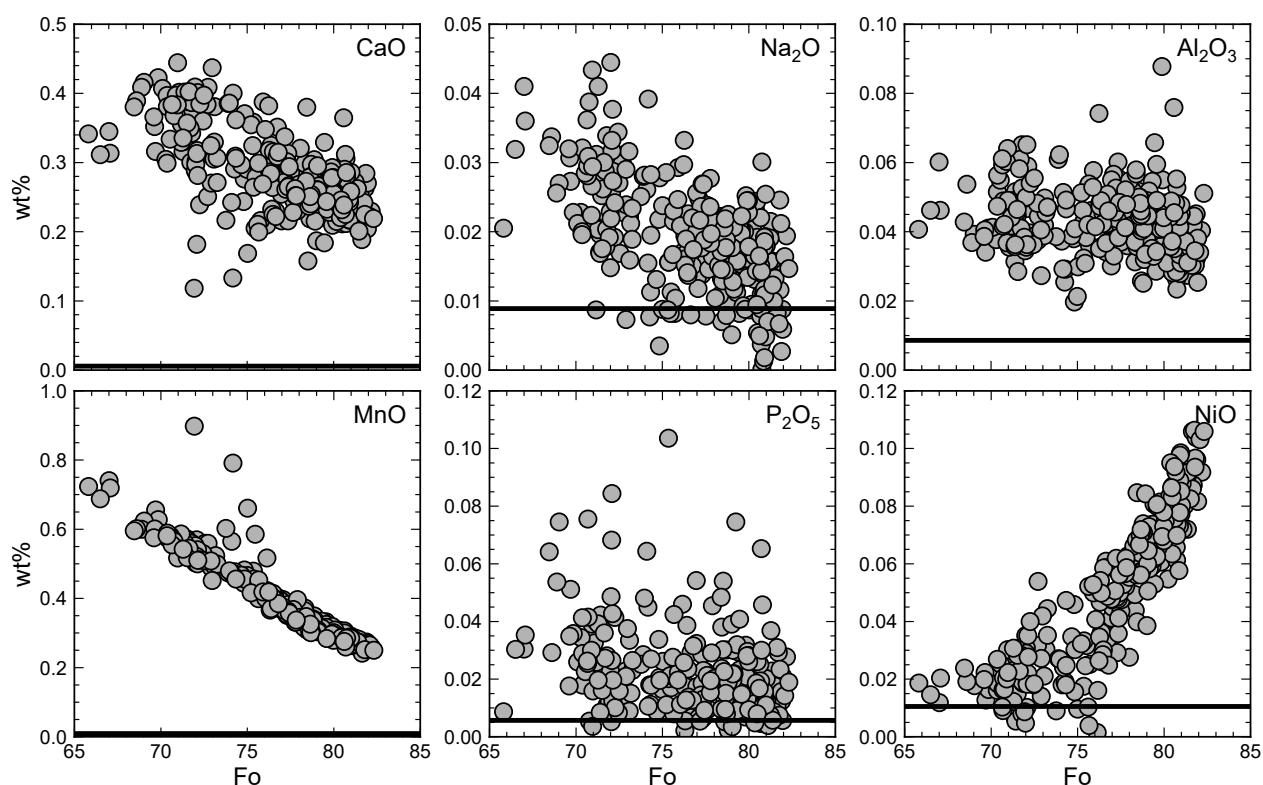


Figure 6.14: Olivine trace element composition, where the black horizontal line indicates the detection limit (dl). Data are available in Table H.1.

6.17c). Pyroxene-hosted melt inclusions are less rounded than those in olivine (Figure 6.17d). All inclusions analysed were naturally glassy and brown, and most of the melt inclusions observed were glassy. Some inclusions contain a large oxide crystal on the interface with the host mineral (Figure 6.17b). Bubbles are common in the melt inclusions and are mostly a small proportion of the melt inclusion volume (Figures 6.17a, b, c, d, and f), but rarely the bubble occupies most of the melt inclusion volume (Figure 6.17e). Embayments, melt pockets still connected to the outside of the crystal, were also observed (Figure 6.17f).

Figure 6.18 shows the glass chemistry from melt inclusions, embayments and groundmass glass using EPMA ($n = 169$; data are available Table H.7). All oxide concentrations shown in Figure 6.18 are above their detection limits. Broadly, TiO_2 , Al_2O_3 , CaO , and MgO correlate negatively with SiO_2 ; whilst MnO , Na_2O , K_2O , and P_2O_5 correlate positively with SiO_2 ; and FeO_T does not correlate with SiO_2 . Al_2O_3 , K_2O ,

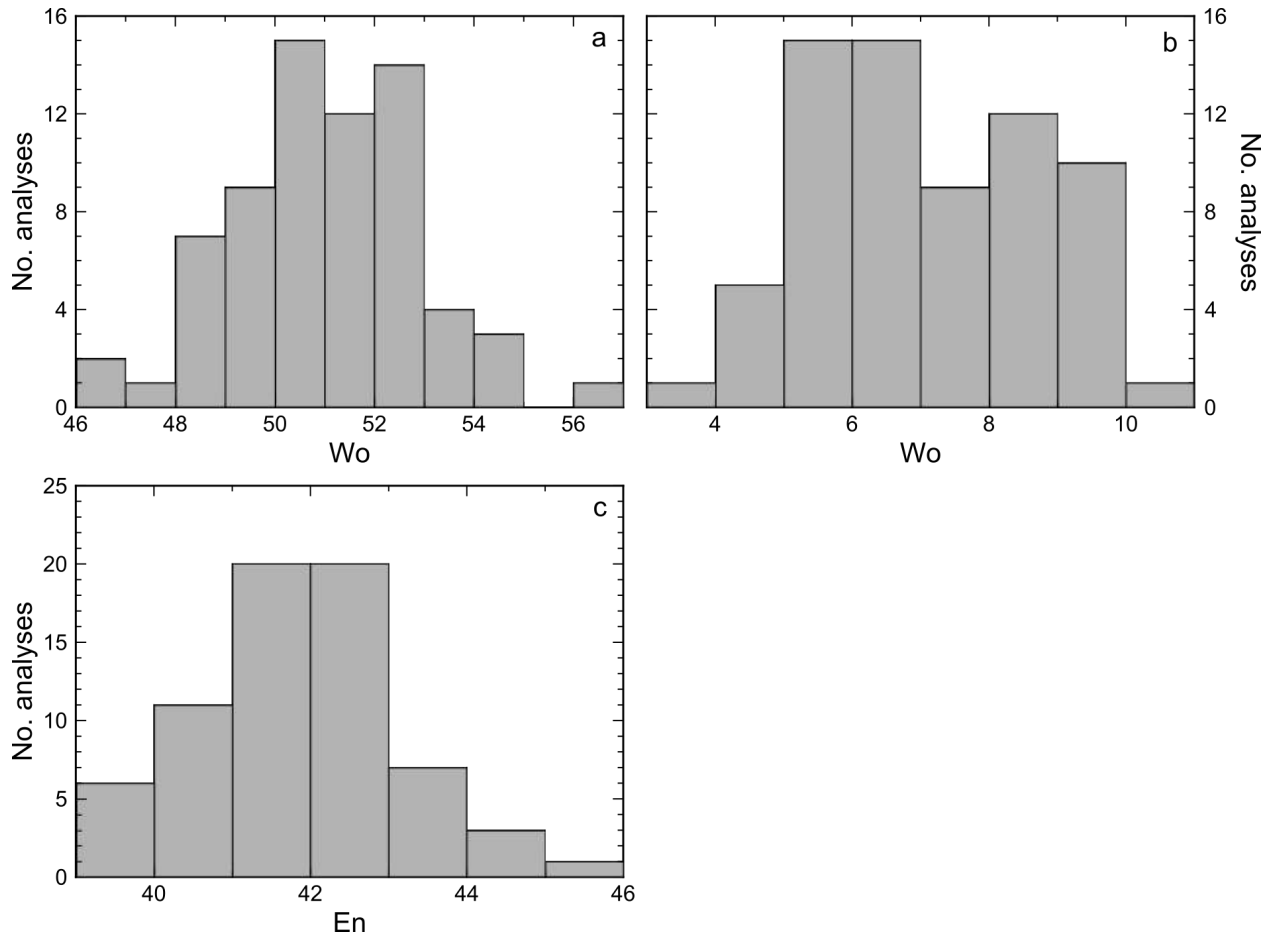


Figure 6.15: Histogram of pyroxene wollastonite (Wo), ferrosilite (Fs), and enstatite (En) content ($n = 68$). Data are available in Table H.2.

and P_2O_5 may contain inflection points, where Al_2O_3 initially increases then decreases whereas K_2O and P_2O_5 are initially constant then increase. Fo decreases with increasing SiO_2 , although there is a wide range of Fo at ~ 47 wt% SiO_2 . NiO is below detection in all but three inclusions ($n = 23$, $dl = 60$ ppm). The three inclusions with measurable NiO have large standard deviations (125 ± 189 , 80 ± 84 , and 70 ± 80 ppm NiO, mean and 1σ of ten analyses), and are therefore likely to be contaminated analyses containing host olivine.

Figure 6.19 shows the volatile element compositions of melt inclusions, embayments and groundmass glass (data are available in Tables H.5–H.7). H_2O measurements are either from SIMS-4f, SIMS-1270, Raman, or EPMA-VBD data. A comparison of these techniques is shown in Figure E.2 where individual melt inclusions have been analysed with multiple techniques, which in general agree well (Appendix E). SIMS and Raman have smaller errors compared to EPMA-VBD (Appendix E), hence SIMS and Raman H_2O values are used in preference in EPMA-VBD (no melt inclusions were analysed using both SIMS and Raman). Some melt inclusions were analysed using both SIMS-4f and SIMS-1270, in which case SIMS-4f H_2O values are used as SIMS-1270 measurements are more effected by high H backgrounds and changes in the probe current than SIMS-4f measurements. CO_2 concentrations are all from SIMS-4f data. Cl, S, and F concentrations are from EPMA, with detection limits of 114, 50, and 305 ppm, respectively. S negatively correlates with SiO_2 ; Cl has a wider range with increasing SiO_2 ; and F does not correlate with SiO_2 . In high Fo olivine, H_2O decrease with increasing SiO_2 , whilst in low Fo olivine there is no correlation. CO_2 initially

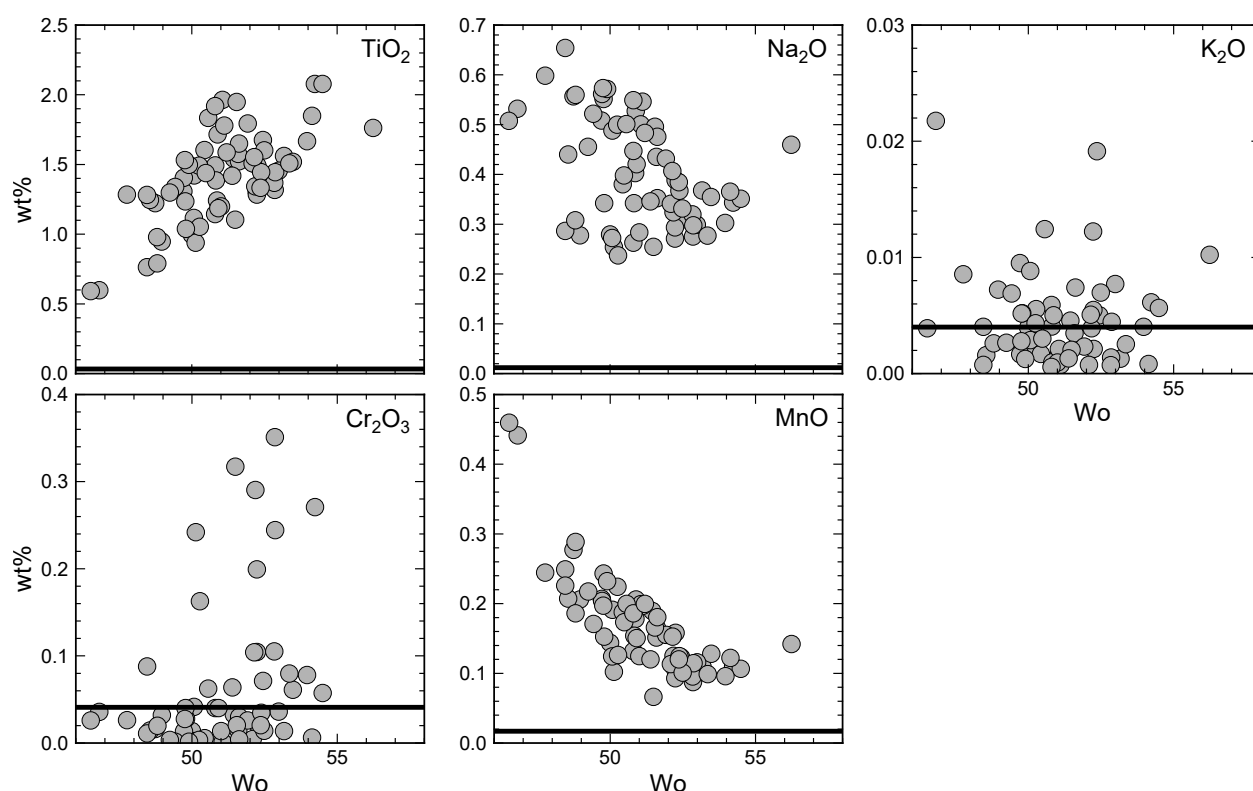


Figure 6.16: Pyroxene trace element composition, where the black horizontal line indicates the detection limit (dl). Data are available in Table H.2.

decreases with SiO₂ and then remains low at higher SiO₂, except one melt inclusion with the highest CO₂ measured which is at high SiO₂. Figure 6.20 shows the concentration and isotope ratios for H₂O and CO₂. There is a large range of CO₂ (0–1100 ppm) at high H₂O (2–3 wt%). At low H₂O (<2 wt%) CO₂ is low (<300 ppm), although there are two melt inclusions with high CO₂. There is no correlation between δD and H₂O or CO₂. One melt inclusion has a measured carbon isotope ratio of -5.27 ± 2.4 ‰ $\delta^{13}C$ with 460 ppm CO₂ and 2.24 wt% H₂O.

Figure 6.21 shows the glass Fe oxidation state and degree of nanolitisation (N#, Equation 6.7) of melt inclusions, embayments, and groundmass glass (data are available in Tables H.5 and H.7). Fe oxidation state is measured using EPMA and N# by Raman spectroscopy. Fe oxidation state does not correlate with SiO₂ and N# does not correlate with H₂O, but Fe oxidation state negatively correlates with N#. Of the glass analysed using Raman ($n = 119$), 52 % contained nanolites.

6.5. Evaluation of melt inclusion modification

All melt inclusions were hosted in crystals found in small scoria that will have cooled quickly post-eruption (Lloyd et al., 2013). This is supported by observed melt inclusions being naturally glassy. Hence, the effect of modification after eruption is assumed to be negligible. Still, melt inclusions may have suffered post-entrapment modification prior to eruption.

As discussed in Section 6.2.1, the degree of post-entrapment crystallisation of olivine on the walls of the melt inclusion can be evaluated using $K_{D(Fe-Mg)}^{ol-melt}$ and $K_{D(Ni)}^{ol-melt}$. Using Equation 6.1 and the FeO_T and MgO

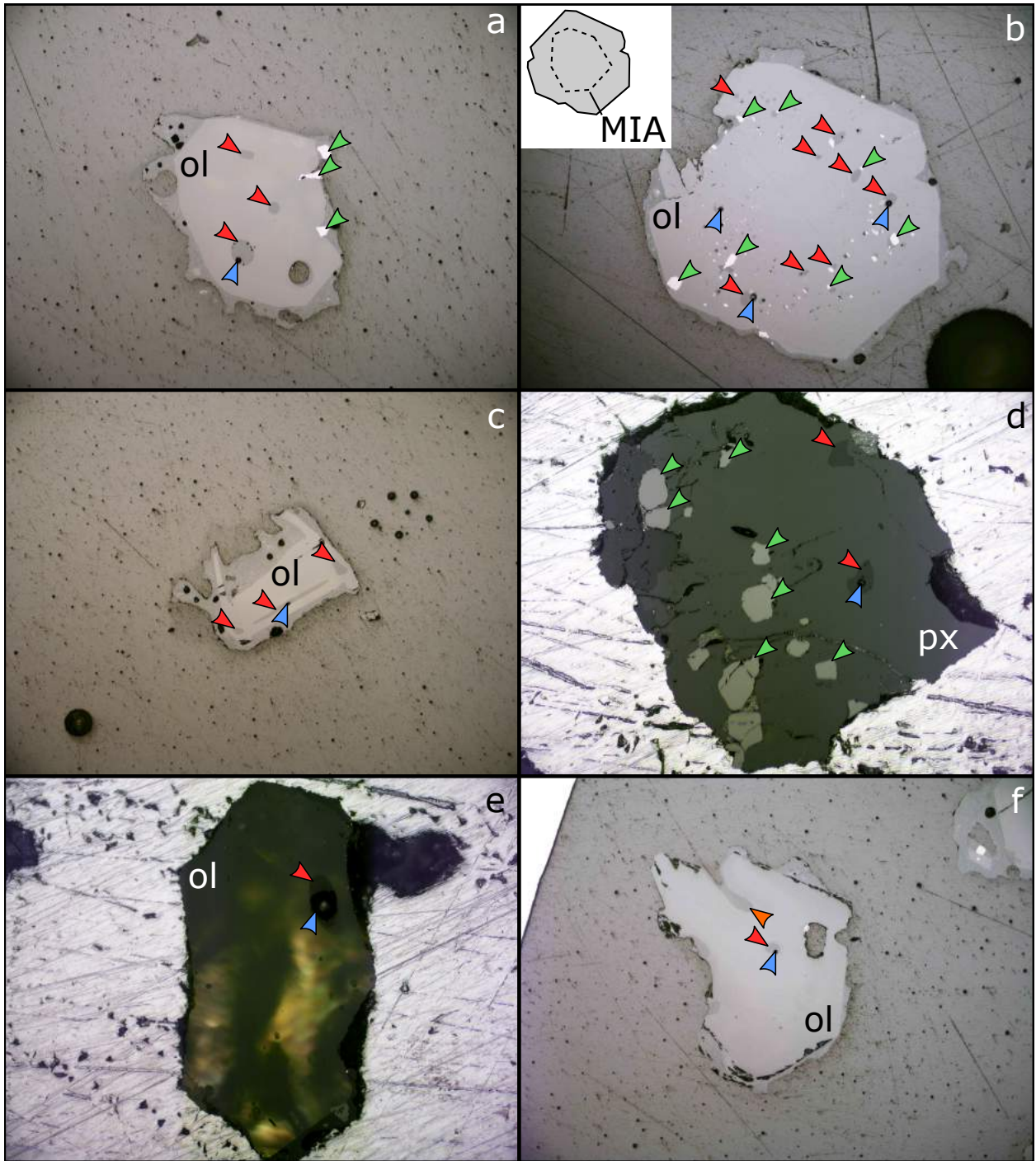


Figure 6.17: Annotated reflected light photomicroscope images: (a) isolated, glassy olivine-hosted melt inclusion containing small bubble, (b) olivine-hosted melt inclusion assemblage (MIA), with oxides trapped in the melt inclusions, (c) olivine-hosted melt inclusions along a growth face, (d) pyroxene-hosted melt inclusions, (e) large bubble in an olivine-hosted melt inclusion, and (f) olivine-hosted embayment. The mineral type is labelled, where ol is olivine and px is pyroxene. The colour and orientation (direction arrow is pointing to) of the arrow indicates the phase highlighted: red bottom-right arrows are melt inclusions, blue top-right arrows are bubbles, green bottom-left arrows are oxides, and orange top-right arrows are embayments (not all appearances of each phase are indicated for clarity).

concentrations of melt inclusions and their host-olivine (Tables H.1 and H.7), $K_{D(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}}$ is 0.11–0.30. The range in $K_{D(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}}$ either requires a range in melt $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ at the time of entrapment (0.34–0.95 $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$

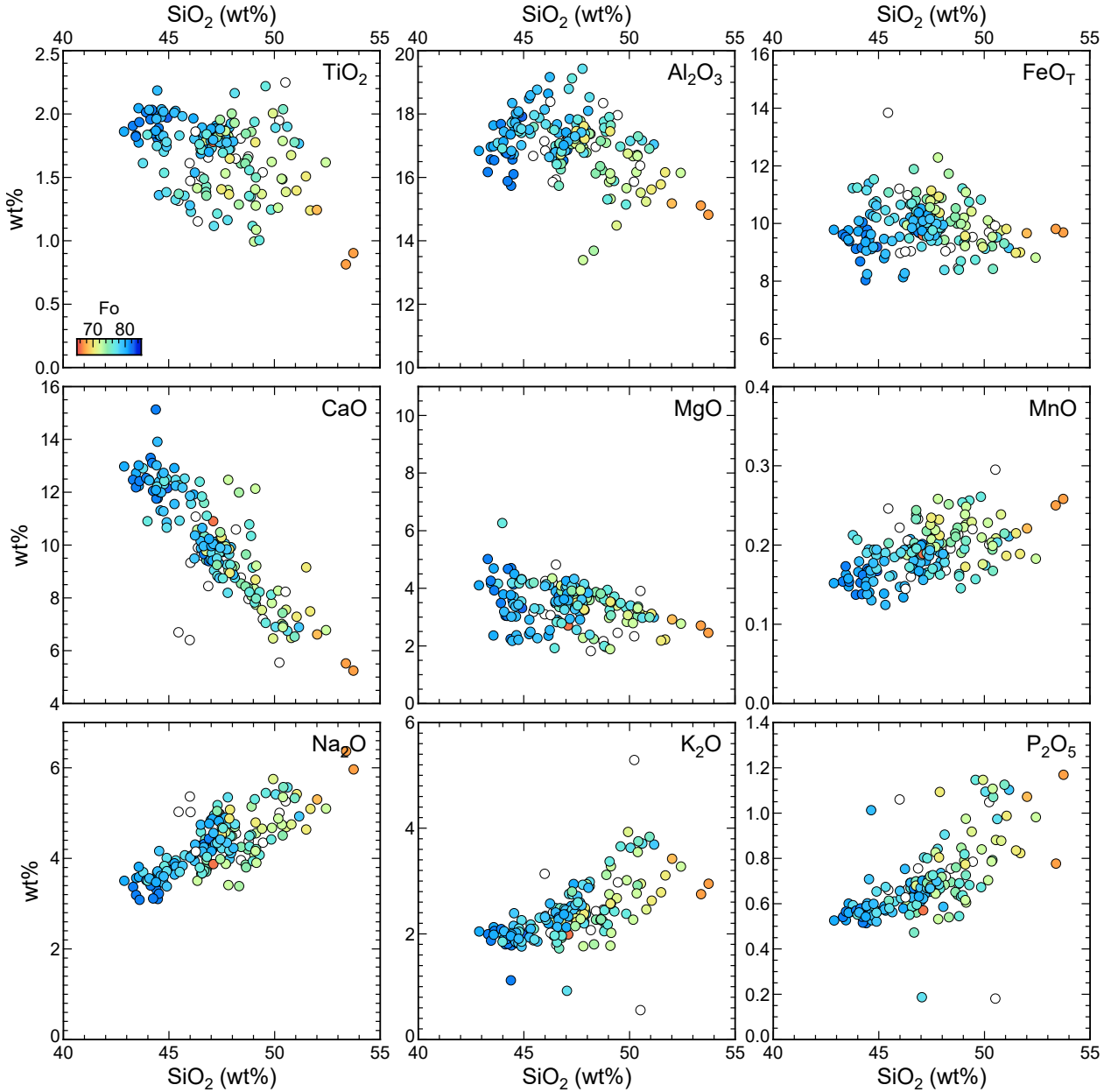


Figure 6.18: Glass major and minor element chemistry for melt inclusions, embayments, and groundmass glass, coloured by Fo if olivine-hosted or white if pyroxene-hosted. The oxide is labelled in the top right corner (FeO_T is all Fe reported as FeO) and all concentrations are in wt%. Data are available in Table H.7.

using Equation 6.2), post-entrapment olivine crystallisation from an initially homogeneous $K_{D(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}}$ (and hence homogeneous melt $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$), or a combination of both. Figure 6.22 shows $K_{D(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}}$ against measured $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ with Equation 6.2 shown. The data point with $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T > 1$ is likely contaminated by the olivine host or an oxide grain within the melt inclusion. Some melt inclusions have low $K_{D(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}}$ consistent with their $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$, whilst others fall below Equation 6.2. This implies some melt inclusions may have suffered host olivine crystallisation, but $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ can also be modified post-entrapment, which is discussed in Section 6.2.3. The range of MgO in the melt inclusions (1.89–6.27 wt%, Table H.7) gives $K_{D(\text{Ni})}^{\text{ol-melt}}$ 19–64 using Equation 6.3, which results in a maximum equilibrium NiO of 41 ppm using the measured NiO the olivines (Table H.1). Unfortunately, the detection limit for NiO in the glass was 60 ppm, hence it is not possible to evaluate the extent of olivine crystallisation in this way.

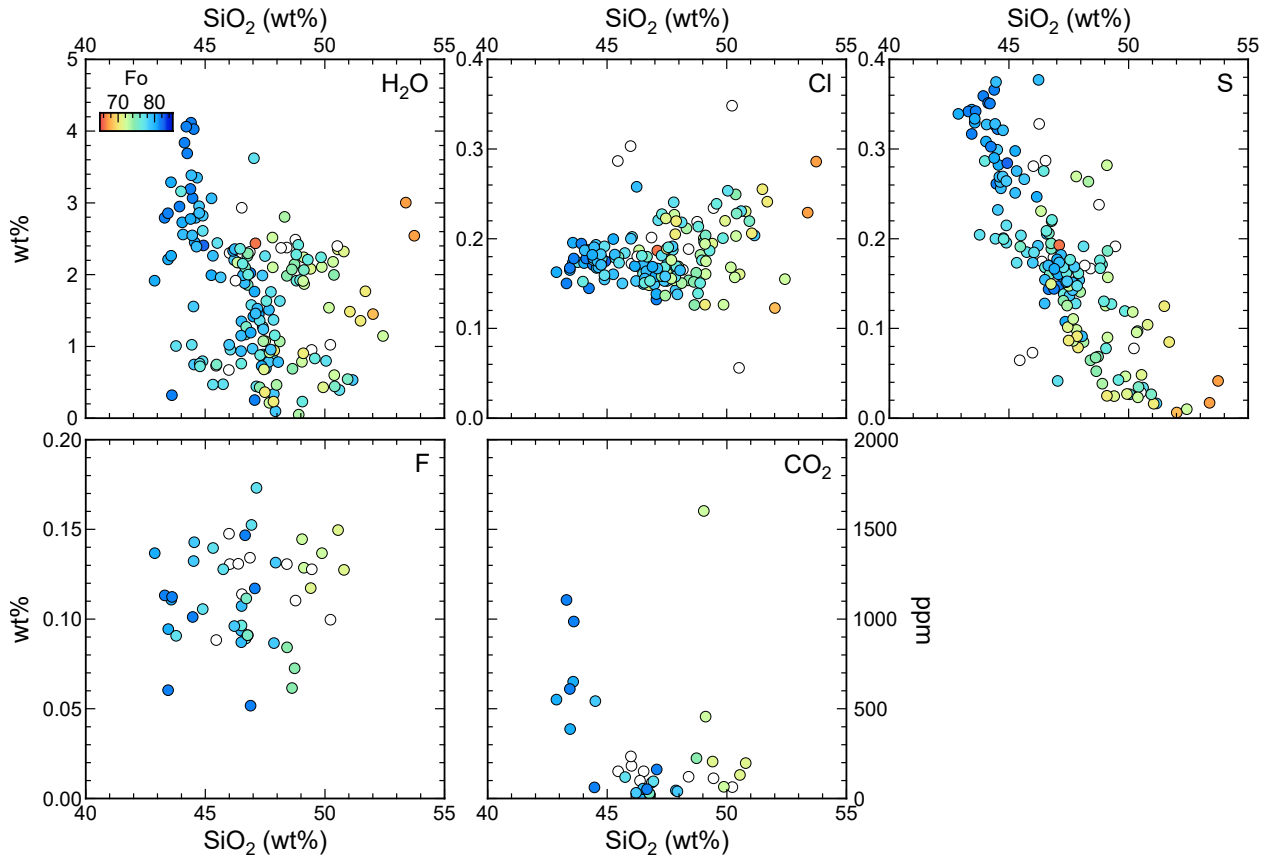


Figure 6.19: Glass volatile content from melt inclusions, embayments, and groundmass glass, coloured by Fo if olivine-hosted or white if pyroxene-hosted. The volatile species is labelled in the top right corner. All volatile concentrations are in wt%, except CO₂ (ppm). Data are available in Tables H.5–H.7.

To estimate the degree of post-entrapment diffusive re-equilibration with the host olivine (Section 6.2.2), the olivine composition of one transect away from an olivine-hosted melt inclusion was measured using EPMA (Figure 6.23). Away from the melt inclusion, FeO decreases and Fo increases consistent with Fe diffusion from the melt into the olivine. There are no bulk data available for the 23 November 2013 eruption, but Viccaro et al. (2015) measured bulk rock for eruptions from January 2011 to April 2013, which show varying degrees of differentiation and magma mixing from a similar parental magma. Assuming the bulk magma from the 23 November 2013 eruption lies on the FeO–MgO trend defined by the January 2011 to April 2013 bulk rock data, melt inclusions have lower MgO and FeO than would be expected (Figure 6.24a). The Fo of olivine in equilibrium with the bulk rock was calculated using Petrolog 3.1.1.3 (Danyushevsky and Plechov, 2011) at 1 kbar and FMQ (model of Borisov and Shapkin 1990) using the Ford et al. (1983) olivine model (Figure 6.24b). Extending the Fo–FeO trend from the bulk rock implies that significant Fe loss has occurred, consistent with the ‘Fe-loss triangle’ of Danyushevsky et al. (2000), but complete re-equilibration has not been achieved for most melt inclusions.

H₂O concentration and Fe oxidation state may have been modified prior to eruption. Negative correlations between δD and H₂O are indicative of H₂O loss by Equation 6.4 (e.g., Gaetani et al., 2012; Hauri, 2002; Shaw et al., 2008), but for olivine-hosted melt inclusions in Figure 6.20 the relationship has no clear negative trend, therefore dehydration is not the sole process controlling the relationship between δD and H₂O. Relationships between size of melt inclusion, H₂O concentration, and δD have been used to identify

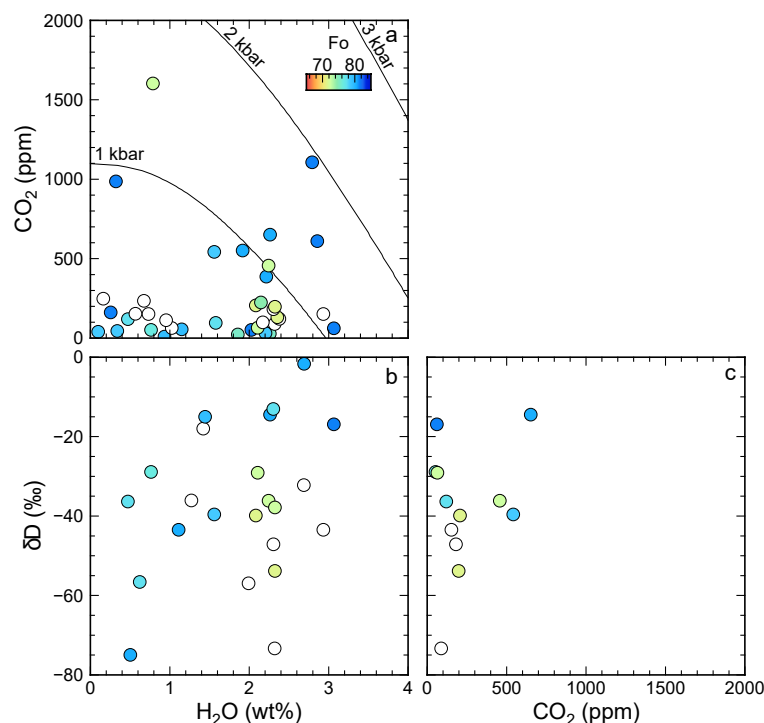


Figure 6.20: Glass CO₂, H₂O, and δD from melt inclusions coloured by Fo if olivine-hosted or white if pyroxene-hosted: (a) CO₂-H₂O with isobars calculated using VolatileCalc (46 wt% SiO₂ and 1140 °C), (b) δD-H₂O, and (c) δD-CO₂. Data are available in Tables H.1 and H.6.

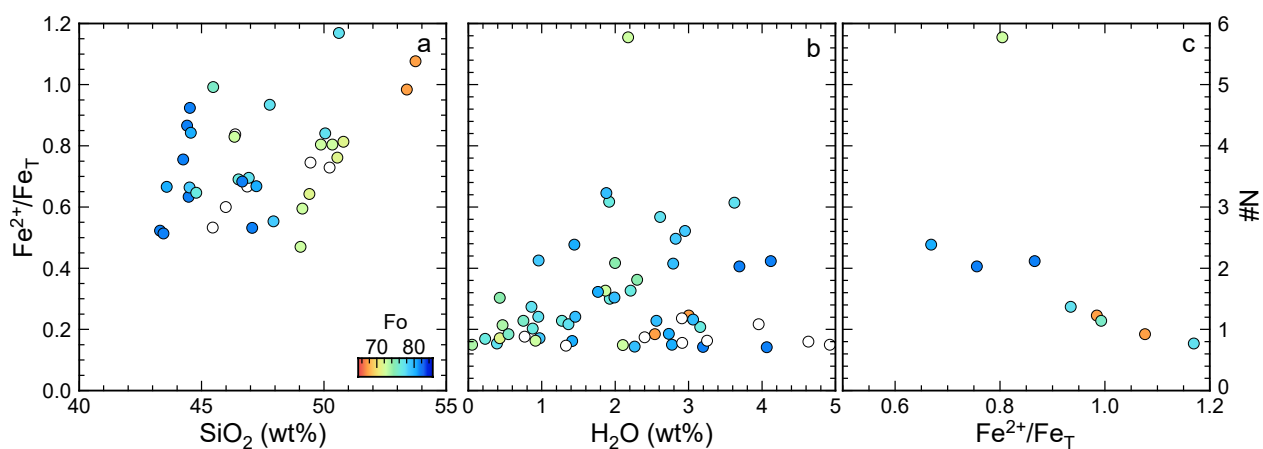


Figure 6.21: Glass Fe oxidation state and degree of nanolitisation (N#) from melt inclusions, embayments, and groundmass glass, coloured by Fo if olivine-hosted or white if pyroxene-hosted: (a) Fe oxidation state against SiO₂, and N# against (b) H₂O and (c) Fe oxidation state. Data are available in Tables H.5–H.7.

dehydration (e.g., Métrich and Deloule, 2014), but this depends on the position of the melt inclusion within the olivine which is hard to gauge when crystals have been picked from crushed scoria and polished. Some melt inclusions are more reduced than would be expected using $K_{D(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}}$ (Figure 6.22), which either indicates host crystallisation or $f\text{O}_2$ re-equilibration. Magma reduction can occur due to S degassing during ascent, hence this could drive re-equilibration in these melt inclusions.

Some melt inclusions contain large bubbles (e.g., Figure 6.17e), which are likely co-entrapped fluid bubbles. Therefore, the volatiles in these large bubbles were not in the melt within the melt inclusion at the time of

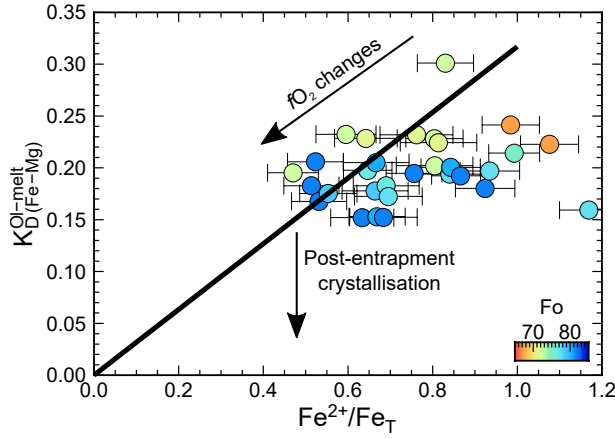


Figure 6.22: $K_D^{\text{ol-melt}}_{\text{D(Fe-Mg)}}$ (Equation 6.1) against EPMA $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$, where the solid black line is the relationship expected at equilibrium from Blundy et al. (2018) (Equation 6.2). Data are available in Tables H.1 and H.7

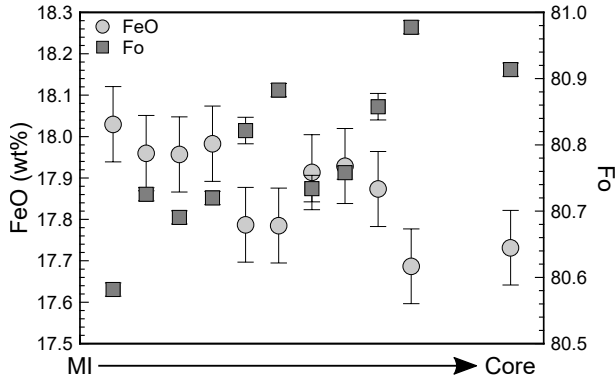


Figure 6.23: Transect away from a melt inclusion into the core of the olivine crystal (MI → Core) for FeO (circle) and Fo (square). Data are available in Table H.1.

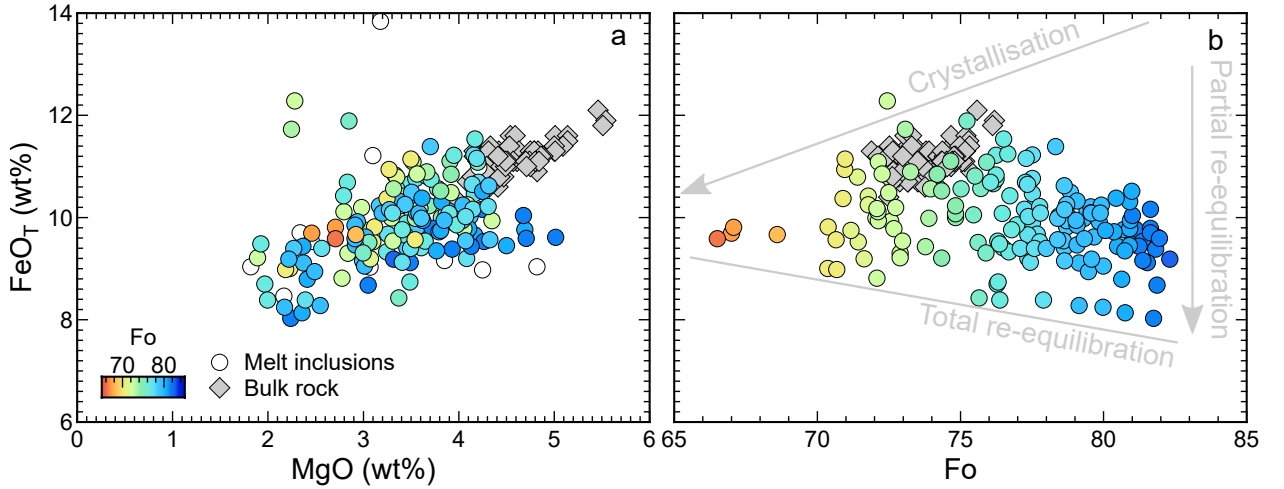


Figure 6.24: Evaluating Fe loss by comparing melt inclusion (this study) and bulk rock (Viccaro et al., 2015) data, where melt inclusions are coloured by Fo if olivine-hosted or white if pyroxene-hosted: (a) FeO_T (all Fe reported as FeO) against MgO, and (b) FeO_T against Fo, which has been calculated for bulk rock using Petrolog 3.1.1.3 (Danyushevsky and Plechov, 2011) at 1 kbar and FMQ (Borisov and Shapkin, 1990) using the olivine model of Ford et al. (1983), with annotations of the ‘Fe-loss triangle’ from Danyushevsky et al. (2000) shown in grey.

entrapment. Most melt inclusions contain small bubbles (e.g., Figures 6.17a–d and f), which are likely post-entrapment shrinkage bubbles and therefore may contain significant CO_2 related to the melt. Rapidly cooled samples (i.e., scoria rather than lava flows) may contain no measurable CO_2 in their bubbles, as there is insufficient time for the CO_2 to diffuse into the bubble (Hartley et al., 2014). The CO_2 content of the bubbles was not measured, therefore reported CO_2 concentrations in the melt inclusions are minimum

estimates. If CO₂ is present in the bubble, it will also change the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the melt. This process can either be kinetically-driven or under equilibrium conditions depending on the time available for CO₂ to diffuse into the bubble. Assuming equilibrium, closed-system degassing to form the bubble would cause the melt to become heavier by at maximum +2 to +4 ‰, whilst kinetically-controlled bubble formation would cause the melt to become lighter (e.g., Matthey, 1991; Matthey et al., 1990; Aubaud et al., 2004).

As all melt inclusions analysed were glassy (Figure 6.17), no homogenisation was required. Some inclusions contain oxide crystals (Figure 6.17b) but, due to their large size and location on the melt-host interface, these are interpreted to be co-entrapped oxide crystals as oxide crystals can act as nucleation sites for melt inclusions (Roedder, 1979).

Nanolites were observed in many of the melt inclusions analysed, hence it is important to understand when they formed. Figure 6.25 shows a Raman transect across an embayment. H₂O concentration (qualitatively from the area of the HW region, Figure 6.25b) decreases from the inner to outer part of the embayment, whilst degree of nanolitisation (quantitatively from N#, Figure 6.25) decreases. This was also observed in an embayment from Pantelleria (Di Genova et al., 2018), indicating H₂O degassing during ascent from the H₂O concentration gradient across the embayment, and nanolitisation where diffusion was fast enough (i.e., high H₂O). This implies these nanolites formed on the quench in melt inclusions where the conditions were favourable (i.e., low viscosity due to high H₂O), and they were not present in the melt at the time of entrapment.

Melt inclusions have been affected by varying degrees of post-entrapment modification (Figure 6.3). Most melt inclusions have lost MgO and FeO, due to continued host crystallisation and re-equilibration (Figure 6.24). Some melt inclusions have undergone a degree of re-equilibration of H₂O and Fe oxidation state, therefore H₂O concentrations are a minimum estimate and δD are a maximum (Figure 6.22). Some CO₂ may have been sequestered into bubbles, therefore CO₂ concentrations are a minimum and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are a minimum/maximum, depending on whether the process occurred under equilibrium or kinetic conditions (Figures 6.17a–d and f). Oxide crystals were co-entrapped rather than crystallising post-entrapment (Figure 6.17b) and nanolites are a quench feature (Figure 6.25).

6.6. Comparison with previous eruptions at Etna

6.6.1. 2011–2013 eruptive sequence

Giuffrida and Viccaro (2017) give five different magmatic environments (referred to as M₀₀, M₀, M_{1a}, M_{1b}, and M₂ in Table 6.1 and Figure 6.2) to account for the variation in olivine composition found in the 2011–2013 eruptions using rhyolite-MELTS to constrain the intensive parameters of the environments. The volatile concentrations are set to be H₂O-poor and CO₂-rich (Aiuppa et al., 2007; Collins et al., 2009; Nicotra and Viccaro, 2012). Higher volatile concentrations do not match their phase equilibria and mineral compositions. They infer that M₀₀, M₀, and M_{1a} were active in 2011–2012, whilst M_{1b} and M₂ only became active in 2013, and magmas do not have to pass through all environments during ascent. Alternatively, Giacomoni et al. (2018) define four different magmatic facies (referred to as F1, F2, F3, and F4 in Table 6.1 and Figure 6.2) to the plumbing system of Etna during the 2011–2012 eruptive sequence, based on mineral, bulk rock, and groundmass glass chemistry. In general, for equivalent olivine compositions, ‘M’ environments are cooler, shallower and drier than ‘F’ facies. Neither study contains data from the 23

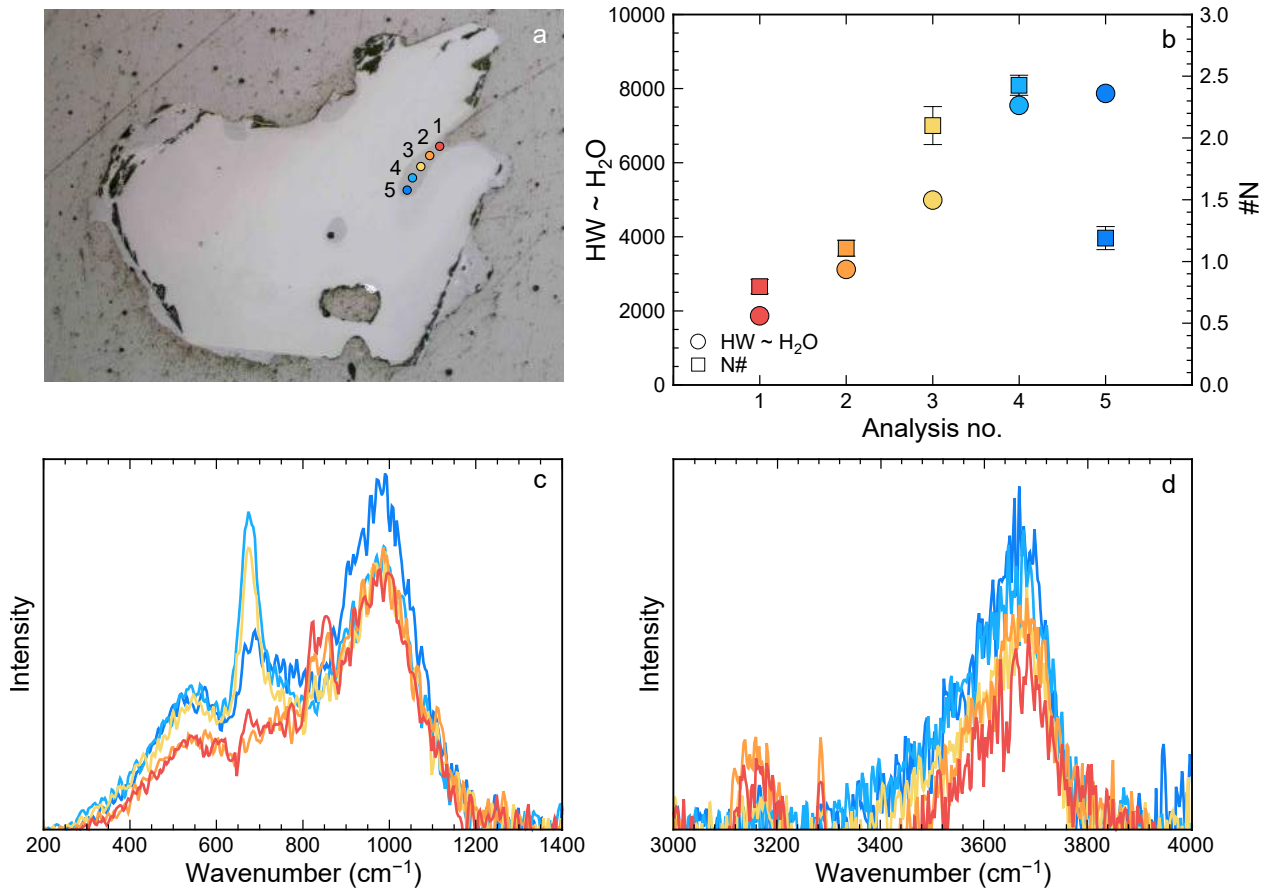


Figure 6.25: Raman transect across an embayment in olivine: (a) photomicroscope image in reflected light showing the approximate position where the Raman spectra were collected; (b) area of HW region as a proxy for H₂O concentration and degree of nanolitisation (N#) along the embayment; and (c) low-wavelength and (d) high-wavelength region of the Raman spectra, which are corrected for temperature, excitation line effects and backgrounds according to (Di Genova et al., 2017b). Colours from (a) used in (b)–(d).

November 2013 eruption itself.

Olivine from the 23 November 2013 eruption has modes at Fo₇₂ and Fo₈₁, which would correspond to M₂ and M₀ or F4 and F2, respectively. M₀ and F2 are hotter and deeper than M₂ and F4, hence this implies a mixing event between deep, hotter magma with shallower, cooler magma prior to eruption. This is consistent with Viccaro et al. (2015) who thought injections of fresh magma, and mixing, were triggers for paroxysmal events during 2011–2013 eruptive sequence. Melt inclusions from the 23 November 2013 eruption contain 0–3 wt% H₂O, which is inconsistent with the rhyolite-MELTS modelling of Giuffrida and Viccaro (2017). Either the 23 November 2013 eruption was much more hydrous than the other 2011–2013 eruptions, or the intensive parameters need to be re-evaluated at higher H₂O concentrations. Melt inclusions are trapped between 0 and 2 kbars (Figure 6.20), which encompasses the range suggested for M₂ and F4, but is far lower than that of M₀ and F2. Either these inclusions have lost CO₂ to a bubble or are undersaturated, and hence the pressure is underestimated, or high Fo olivine is crystallised at shallower depths than implied by either of these models.

6.6.2. 2001–2007 eruptions

Figure 6.26 shows a comparison of major and minor element chemistry of melt inclusions from 23 November 2013 paroxysm with bulk rock from the 2011–2013 eruptive sequence (Viccaro et al., 2015) and melt inclusions from gas-rich eruptions in 2001 and 2002 and gas-poor eruptions in 2004, 2006, and 2007 (Collins et al., 2009; Métrich et al., 2004; Schiavi et al., 2015). All data lie on the same differentiation trend, implying all melts are formed by the same process from the same magma source, as has been previously discussed for the 2001–2007 eruptions (Collins et al., 2009). MgO shows different trends with SiO₂, but this is due to post-entrapment crystallisation corrections. The inflection points seen in Al₂O₃, K₂O, and P₂O₅ are also seen in previous eruptions (and perhaps in FeO_T). Data from the 23 November 2013 eruption cover a similar range to the 2001–2002 eruptions and extend to more primitive compositions than the 2004–2007 melt inclusion and 2011–2013 bulk rock data. The Fo of the 23 November 2013 also covers the whole range seen in 2001–2007 eruptions. This suggests the 23 November 2013 eruption was fed by a more primitive magma than the 2004–2007 eruptions, similar to the 2001–2002 eruptions.

Figure 6.27 shows the same comparison for the volatile concentration of melt inclusions. For H₂O, S, and F, the 23 November 2013 paroxysm covers the whole range shown in the 2001–2007 eruptions. Cl has a similar range, although there are some data with Cl > 0.3 wt% for the other eruptions which are not present in the 23 November 2013 dataset. CO₂ concentrations are mostly lower than either the 2001–2002 or 2004–2007 eruptions, although the trend with SiO₂ is more similar to the 2001–2002 eruptions.

The 2001–2002 eruptions are thought to have been fed by primitive, volatile-rich magma, whilst the 2004–2007 eruptions were fed by the degassed, residual of this magma (Collins et al., 2009; Métrich et al., 2004; Spilliaert et al., 2006). The inflections seen in Al₂O₃, K₂O, and P₂O₅ (and perhaps FeO_T) may require fractional crystallisation to explain their behaviour. The 2001–2002 H₂O–CO₂ trend is predominantly closed-system degassing during fast ascent to the surface (Métrich et al., 2004; Spilliaert et al., 2006), whilst the 2004–2007 eruptions have high CO₂ at low H₂O concentrations caused by CO₂-flushing (Collins et al., 2009) (Figure 6.28). As the 23 November 2013 paroxysm spans the compositional range of both these types of eruptions, a combination of these processes maybe important in driving the eruption (Figure 6.28). The main feature for the 23 November 2013 eruption is a degassing trend, where there is a wide range in CO₂ at high H₂O and then low CO₂ at low H₂O, similar to the 2001–2002 eruptions. Some melt inclusions have less H₂O than might be expected for their CO₂ concentration, which could be post-entrapment H₂O-loss, CO₂-flushing, or disequilibrium CO₂ degassing (Caricchi et al., 2018; Collins et al., 2009; Pichavant et al., 2018). The high CO₂ melt inclusions are hosted in Fo_{78–82} olivine in the 2001–2002 eruptions, with decreasing CO₂ concentration with decreasing Fo implying the melt is crystallising during degassing (Collins et al., 2009) (Figure 6.29). Conversely, in the 2004–2007 eruptions, high CO₂ melt inclusions are hosted by Fo_{70–72} olivine (Collins et al., 2009) (Figure 6.29). Most of the high CO₂ melt inclusions from the 23 November 2013 eruptions are in high Fo olivine (Fo₈₂), although one is in a low Fo olivine (Fo₇₃), perhaps showing that there was a combination the 2001–2002 and 2004–2007 eruptive processes occurring (Figure 6.29).

The relationship between K₂O–CO₂–H₂O can be used to track degassing, H₂O-loss, and CO₂-flushing (Caricchi et al., 2018). Crystallisation increases K₂O as it is incompatible: H₂O-loss does not change K₂O whereas CO₂-flusing and degassing increase K₂O as they dehydrate the melt promoting crystallisation. The apparent fluid composition (molar proportion of H₂O in the fluid, X_{H₂O}) inferred from glass CO₂–H₂O also

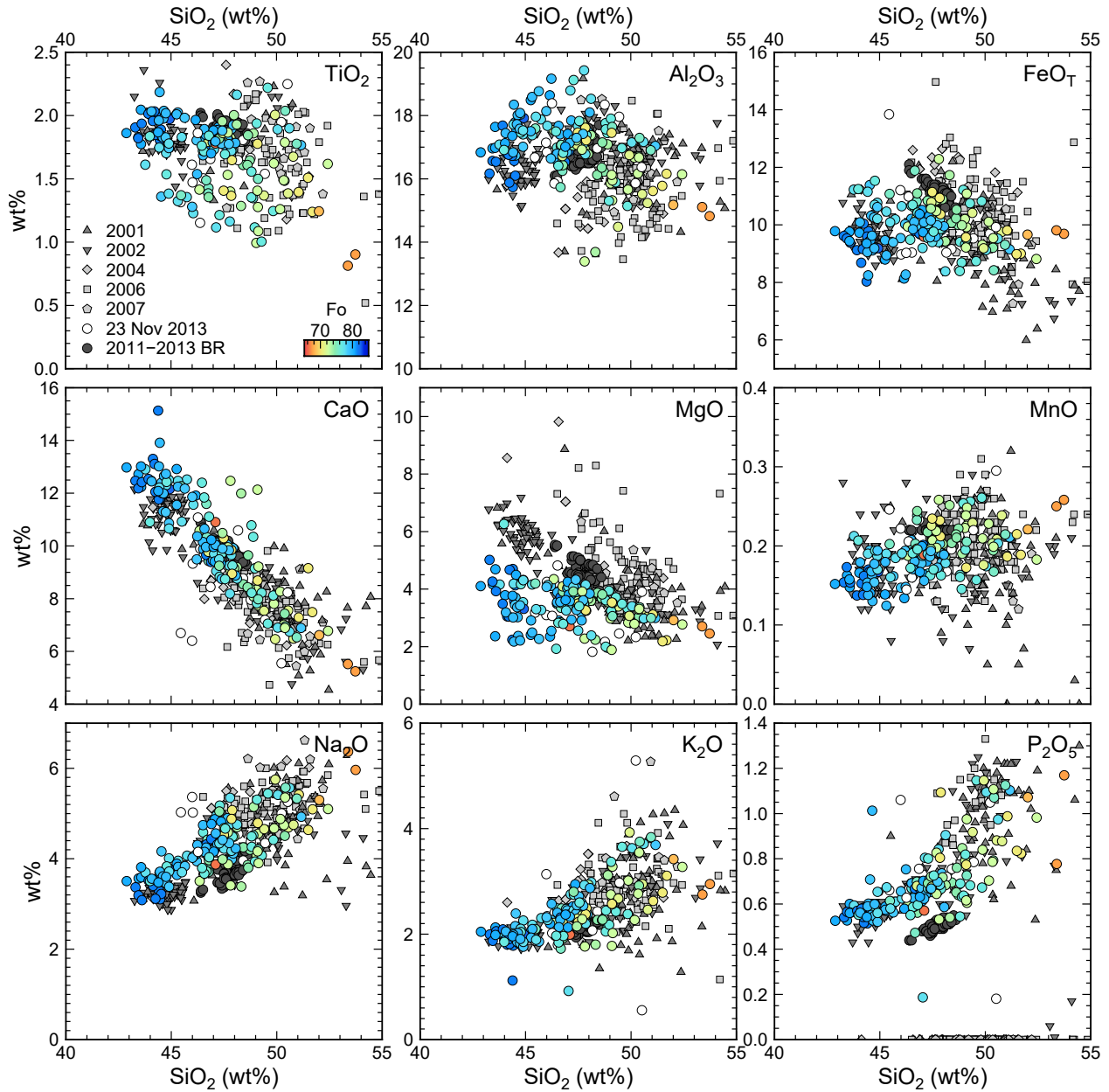


Figure 6.26: Major and minor element chemistry for melt inclusions, embayments, groundmass glass, and bulk rock (BR, 2011–2013 only), where symbol shape indicates eruption year and colour eruption type (dark grey is gas-rich and light grey is gas-poor) for literature data from Métrich et al. (2004) [2001], Spilliaert et al. (2006) [2002], Collins et al. (2009) [2001, 2002, 2004, 2006, and 2007], Schiavi et al. (2015) [2001, 2002, 2004, and 2006], and Viccaro et al. (2015) [2011–2013 BR]. Data from this study [23 November 2013] are coloured by Fo or white if pyroxene-hosted.

changes with these processes: CO₂-flushing leads to a decrease in X_{H₂O}, H₂O-loss to an apparent decrease in X_{H₂O}, and degassing to an increase in X_{H₂O}. Therefore, these processes have different trajectories, as shown in Figure 6.30 (Caricchi et al., 2018). The data, albeit scattered, points to a combination of CO₂-flushing and H₂O-loss.

Alternatively, experiments to simulate closed-system degassing using decompression rates appropriate to eruptions have shown that disequilibrium degassing may occur during basaltic eruptions (Pichavant et al., 2018). Typically, degassing of basaltic magmas during eruption has been assumed to be an equilibrium

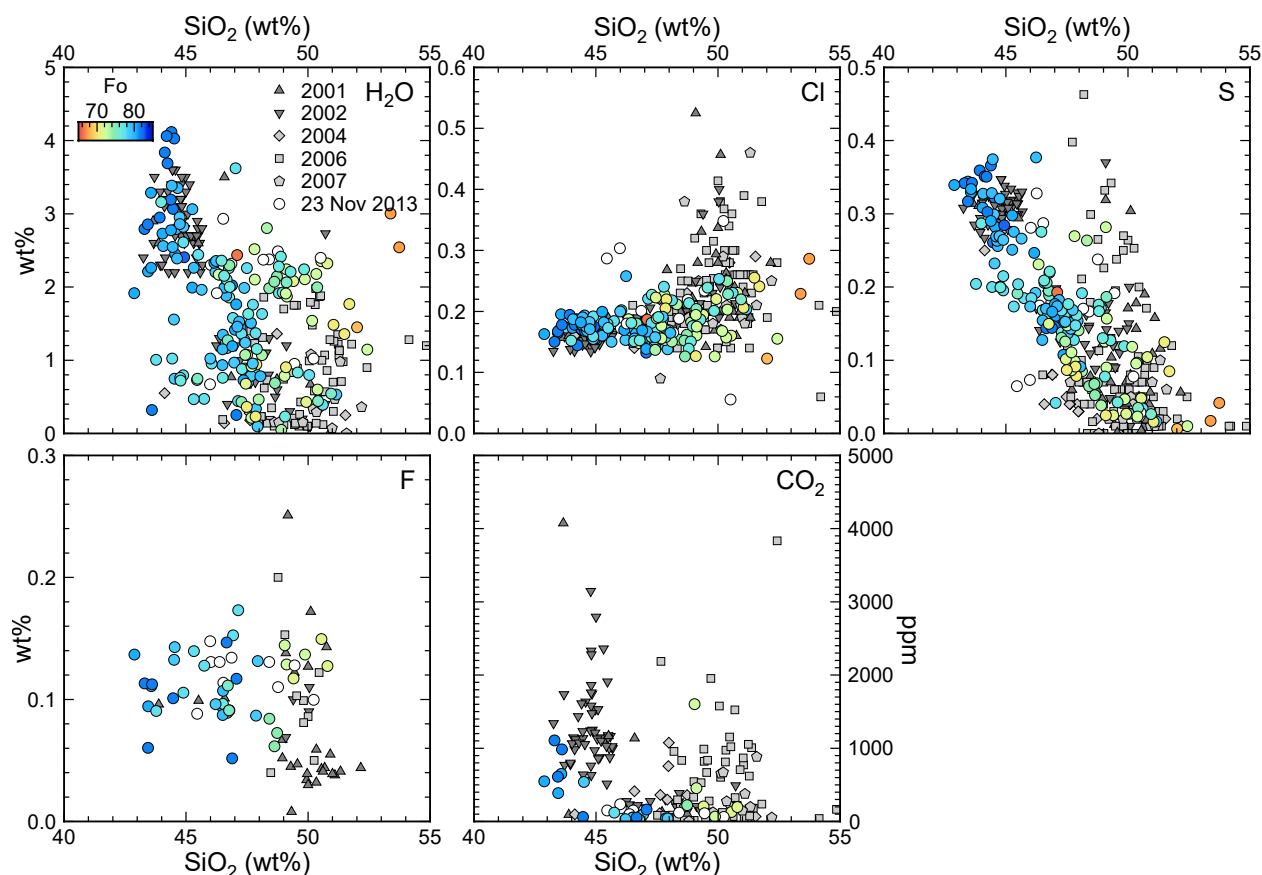


Figure 6.27: Volatile concentrations for melt inclusions, embayments, and groundmass glass where symbol shape indicates eruption year and colour eruption type (dark grey is gas-rich and light grey is gas-poor) for literature data from Métrich et al. (2004) [2001], Spilliaert et al. (2006) [2002], Collins et al. (2009) [2001, 2002, 2004, 2006, and 2007], and Schiavi et al. (2015) [2001, 2002, 2004, and 2006]. Data from this study [23 November 2013] are coloured by Fo or white if pyroxene-hosted.

process because of the high temperatures and low viscosities of the magma. Pichavant et al. (2018) found that whilst H_2O and S had equilibrium concentrations in the melt after decompression, CO_2 concentrations were elevated. This implied that the CO_2 concentration was in disequilibrium, likely due to the slow diffusivity of CO_2 in silicate melts, which hindered its diffusion into bubbles (Zhang et al., 2010). These experiments are crystal-free, which requires greater degrees of supersaturation to allow bubble nucleation, but some natural MORB samples also show supersaturation with respect to a CO_2 -rich fluid therefore disequilibrium degassing maybe a common process (e.g., Aubaud et al., 2004; Fine and Stolper, 1986; Dixon et al., 1988; Stolper and Holloway, 1988; Dixon and Stolper, 1995). All solubility models assume equilibrium, hence this would mean calculated isobars, degassing trends, and fluid composition are not appropriate. Disequilibrium CO_2 degassing results in elevated CO_2 concentrations compared to the H_2O concentrations, which looks similar to H_2O -loss. Therefore, another explanation for the deviation from closed- or open-system degassing paths in Figure 6.28 is variable degrees of H_2O -loss.

6.6.3. Volatile isotope ratios

The δD data are quite scattered and probably result from a combination of degassing, H_2O -loss from the melt inclusion, and possibly crustal contamination (Figure 6.31). The range of δD is similar to that of Allard

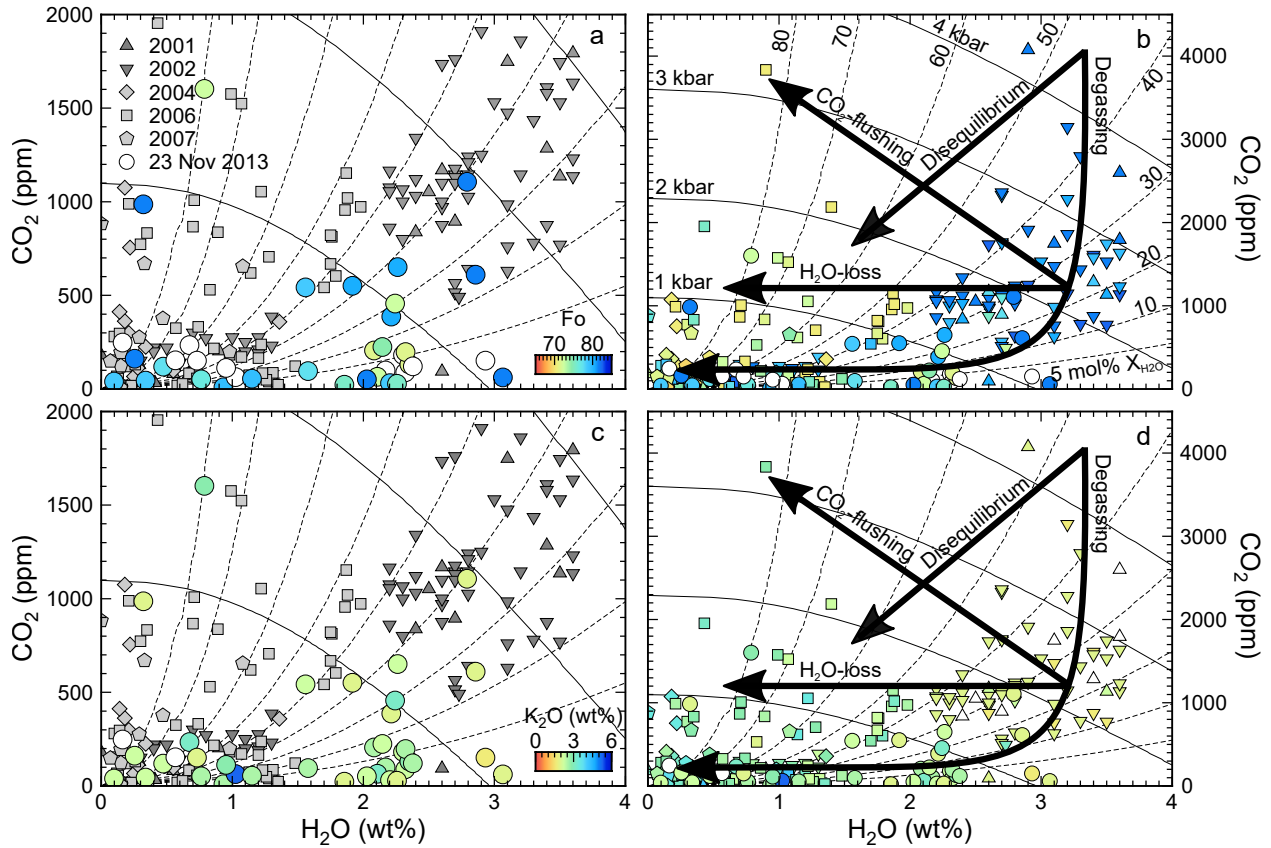


Figure 6.28: H_2O and CO_2 concentrations for melt inclusions, embayments, and groundmass glass, where symbol shape indicates eruption year. For (a) and (c) colour indicates eruption type (dark grey is gas-rich and light grey is gas-poor) for literature data from Métrich et al. (2004) [2001], Spilliaert et al. (2006) [2002], and Collins et al. (2009) [2001, 2002, 2004, 2006, and 2007], except data from this study [23 November 2013] which are coloured by Fo and K₂O, respectively. In (b) and (d) all data are coloured by Fo and K₂O, respectively. Isobars (solid) and isopleths (dashed) shown are calculated using VolatileCalc at 46 wt% SiO₂ and 1140 °C and are labelled in (b). Schematic trajectories for closed-system equilibrium and disequilibrium degassing, H₂O-loss, and CO₂-flushing from Caricchi et al. (2018) and Pichavant et al. (2018) are shown by thick, black arrows in (b) and (d).

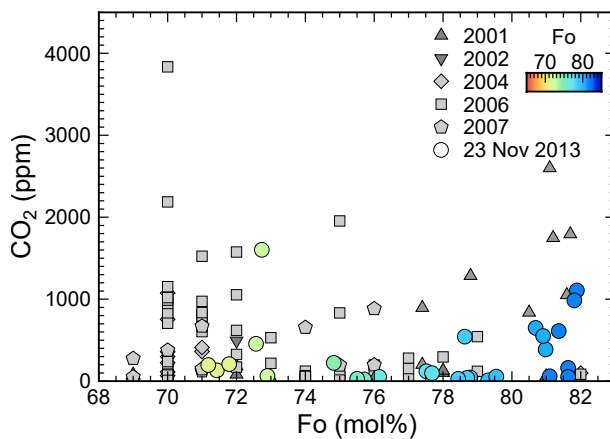
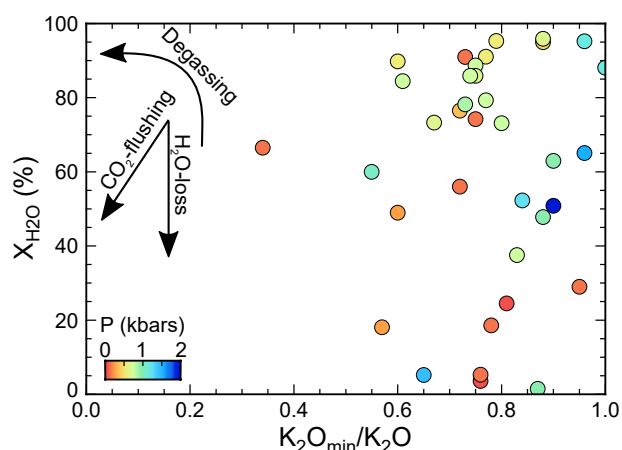


Figure 6.29: CO_2 concentration against host-olivine Fo for melt inclusions, where symbol shape indicates eruption year and colour indicates eruption type (dark grey is gas-rich and light grey is gas-poor), for literature data from Métrich et al. (2004) [2001], Spilliaert et al. (2006) [2002], and Collins et al. (2009) [2001, 2002, 2004, 2006, and 2007], except data from this study [23 November 2013] which are coloured by Fo.

et al. (2006b) for the 2001 eruption, shown schematically in Figure 6.31 as their data are only reported in a conference abstract. They report that melt inclusions with 2000–4000 ppm CO_2 and 3.2 ± 0.3 wt% H_2O have $\delta\text{D} = -20$ ‰ (–90 to 0 ‰ range), whilst those with <1300 ppm CO_2 have $\delta\text{D} = 0$ –40 ‰. They suggest that this isotopically heavier H_2O represented H_2O -loss from ponding magma rather than post-entrapment

Figure 6.30: Fluid X_{H_2O} against melt K_2O_{min}/K_2O coloured by pressure (P), where X_{H_2O} and P are calculated using VolatileCalc at 46 wt% SiO_2 and 1140 °C. Schematic trajectories for degassing, H_2O -loss, and CO_2 -flushing from Caricchi et al. (2018) are shown.



loss of H, but could also be due to exchange with a D-enriched fluid. As the melt evolves, H_2O and δD decrease due to closed- then open-system degassing down to -140 ‰. For comparison, high temperature gases (1000 °C) at Etna have -50 to -45 ‰ δD (Allard, 1978) but have likely interacted with surficial H_2O (Allard, 1982).

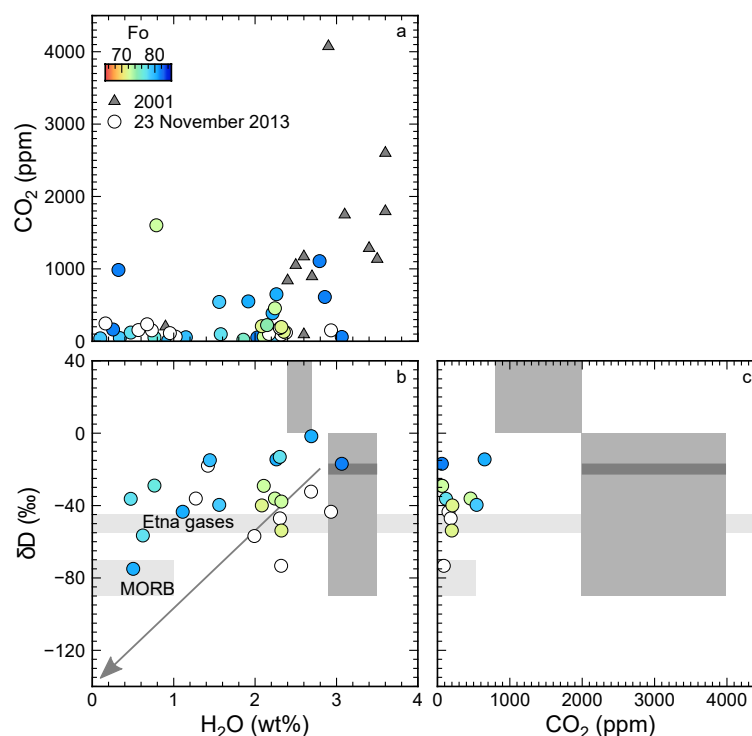


Figure 6.31: Glass CO_2 , H_2O , and δD from melt inclusions which are triangles (Métrich et al., 2004) and shaded regions (Allard et al., 2006b) in dark grey for the 2001 eruption, or coloured by Fo if olivine-hosted or white if pyroxene-hosted for 23 November 2013 (this study): (a) CO_2 - H_2O with isobars calculated using VolatileCalc (46 wt% SiO_2 and 1140 °C), (b) δD - H_2O , and (c) δD - CO_2 . δD ranges in light grey are for MORB and Etna gases (Allard, 1978).

There have been many studies of the carbon concentration and isotope ratio of the volcanic gases emitted at Etna since the 1970s, including sampling the groundwater, diffuse soil gases, fumaroles, and the plume (Aiuppa et al., 2004; Allard, 1983; Allard et al., 1991; Giammanco et al., 1998; Giammanco and Pecoraino, 2005; Martelli et al., 2008; Paonita et al., 2012; Rizzo et al., 2015, 2014; D'Alessandro et al., 1997). There appears to be a temporal trend in $\delta^{13}C$ values measured at Etna, starting in the 1970s at -4.5 ‰ $\delta^{13}C$ and

becoming progressively heavier, reaching -1‰ in 2010 (Chiodini et al., 2011). More recent measurements of the plume in 2013 and 2014 maintain these heavier values of -2.2 and -0.5‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, respectively (Rizzo et al., 2015, 2014). This could reflect a change in the source, with either a greater crustal fluid contribution (Clocchiatti et al., 1988), changing magmatic source (Schiano et al., 2001; Tonarini et al., 2001), increasing contribution from the basement limestone (Chiodini et al., 2011), or increased mantle metasomatism from carbon-rich, slab-derived fluids (Frezzotti et al., 2009). Alternatively, the trend could be due to a constant bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-4‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) but decreasing amounts of degassing (Chiodini et al., 2011).

Paonita et al. (2012) calculated that the bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the magma at Etna was -1.1‰ based on modelling He-Ar-CO₂ degassing trends of fumaroles at the Voragine summit crater. Their model required open-system degassing and mixing between two end-members: a deep magma from 2–4 kbar and a shallow magma at ~ 1.3 kbar. This bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value is much heavier than mantle values of -6 to -4‰ (Cartigny et al., 2001), consistent with an additional component effecting the carbon isotope ratio. The bulk carbon concentration has been estimated as $\sim 2\text{ wt\%}$ based on the C/S volcanic gas molar ratio (Aiuppa et al., 2007).

One melt inclusion has a measured carbon isotope ratio ($-5.27 \pm 2.4\text{‰}$ $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, 460 ppm CO₂, and 2.24 wt% H₂O), which represents the only measurement of the carbon isotope ratio of the melt at Etna. This datum is consistent with degassing at Etna being an equilibrium process, as the melt is isotopically lighter than the gas measurements (e.g., Matthey, 1991; Matthey et al., 1990). Assuming the bulk CO₂ concentration is 2 wt% (Aiuppa et al., 2007) and a fractionation factor of $+2\text{‰}$ (Matthey, 1991) gives a bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -3.3 ± 2.4 and $+2.3 \pm 2.4\text{‰}$ assuming closed- and open-system degassing, respectively (Equations A.15 and A.24). The latter is far heavier than previous estimates and unrealistic, whilst the former is in the range of previous estimates. Conversely, assuming the bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is -1.1‰ (Paonita et al., 2012) and a fractionation factor of $+2\text{‰}$ (Matthey, 1991) gives bulk CO₂ concentrations of 4000 ppm (minimum) and 1000–12000 ppm for closed- and open-system degassing, respectively. The minimum for open-system degassing is too low as the maximum CO₂ concentration in melt inclusions was 1600 ppm CO₂ (Figure 6.19e), and as much as 4000 ppm CO₂ has been measured in melt inclusions from previous eruptions (Métrich et al., 2004). The value for closed-system degassing is a minimum because the maximum difference between the bulk and the melt is the fractionation factor (i.e., 2‰). Hence the lightest the melt can be -3.1‰ , which is within error of the measured value for the melt inclusion.

These are very simply calculations, assuming a single step of either open- or closed-system equilibrium degassing, without magma mixing. Magma mixing, especially, is very important at Etna. Additionally, crustal contamination during ascent could also alter the carbon isotope signature. Clearly, more, higher precision carbon isotope data of melt inclusions are required to use stable isotope fractionation to infer the magmatic degassing history. Despite this, it is promising that the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of this single melt inclusion is at least consistent with previous degassing models at Etna.

6.7. Conclusions

Melt inclusion and mineral compositions from the 23 November 2013 eruption reveal that magma mixing occurred prior to eruption, and likely triggered the eruption (Figure 6.32). Olivine has two compositions, which relate to a hotter, deeper, more primitive magma and a cooler, shallower, more evolved magma, although the parental magma to both are the same. The more primitive magma was volatile-rich (minimum 1600 ppm CO₂ and 3 wt% H₂O) and degassed during ascent from >2 kbar. It mixed with the more evolved

magma (<1 kbar), which was more degassed. For this eruption, it appears that an injection of fresh magma was the trigger for eruption, rather than foam collapse (Jaupart and Vergnolle, 1989). This implies that intense paroxysms may be preceded by precursory signals such as inflation and higher C/S gas emissions because they are related to new magma rather than just foam accumulation.

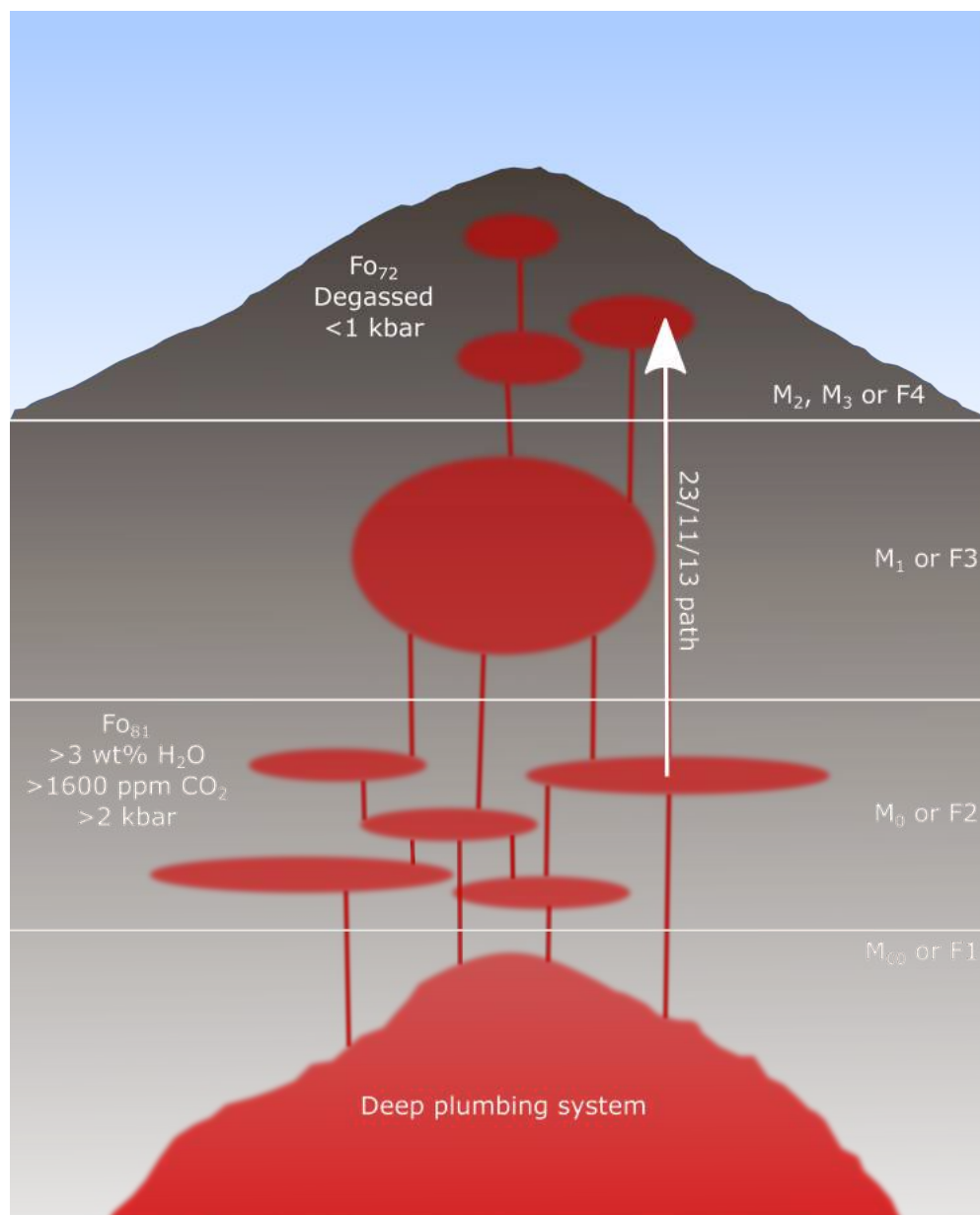


Figure 6.32: Schematic illustration of the plumbing system at Etna for the 23 November 2013, based on the olivine and melt inclusion composition. Magmatic environments from Giuffrida and Viccaro (2017), Giacomoni et al. (2018), and Kahl et al. (2015) (Table 6.1).

Simple closed-system degassing cannot explain the volatile compositions. Either there has been a component of CO₂-flushing or disequilibrium CO₂ exsolution, both of which result in apparently low H₂O compared to equilibrium closed-system degassing. Alternatively, the low H₂O could be due to post-entrapment H₂O-loss. These interpretations have very different meanings for the ascent of the magma, but it is not currently possible to discern between them. Hydrogen isotope data implies a combination of H₂O-loss and degassing. Unfortunately, there is insufficient carbon isotope data, but the single datum would imply

equilibrium, rather than disequilibrium, CO₂ degassing. Additionally, the volatile data represent a mixture of magmas, and hence would not be expected to lie on a single degassing path.

Compared to different eruption styles at Etna, the 23 November 2013 melt composition covers the range of those seen in highly explosive and effusive eruptions. The volatile concentrations are lower than the highly explosive eruptions but have higher H₂O than the effusive eruptions. The highly explosive eruptions are linked to an injection of primitive magma, whilst the effusive eruptions are just the residual of this magma being erupted. Therefore, paroxysms are also triggered by injections of primitive magma but perhaps of smaller volume, and hence are subject to greater mixing with the more evolved end-member, reducing their explosivity.

Chapter 7

Concluding remarks

7.1. Overview

The aim of this thesis was to provide novel techniques for constraining the oxygen fugacity (using glass Fe oxidation state) and volatile composition of magmas prior to eruption using melt inclusions. In this thesis, I have presented three techniques for analysing melt inclusions using the electron probe to measure volatiles by difference accurately and Fe oxidation state, and the ion probe to measure carbon isotope ratios, in hydrous basaltic glass. I have applied these techniques, and other bulk and microanalytical techniques, to experimentally produced glasses to create carbon isotope SIMS glass standards and investigate volatile stable isotope fractionation during degassing; and natural melt inclusions from the 23 November 2013 eruption of Etna to assess post-entrapment modification and the influence of pre-eruptive melt composition on eruption dynamics.

7.2. Sub-surface charging is key for accurate EPMA of silicate glass

Anecdotally, it has been known for a long time that EPMA totals of hydrous silicate glass are low, but this had not been quantified and there was no explanation for these phenomena. The literature review in Chapter 2 compared volatiles by difference to measured volatile concentrations to quantify this problem, and showed how extensive it was for the first time. Sub-surface charging, where electrons are trapped within the silicate glass during EPMA (e.g., Cazaux, 1996), is known to impact the analysis of silicate glass through element migration and oxidation state changes (e.g., Fialin et al., 2011; Humphreys et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2018). Additionally, modelling with Win X-ray (Demers and Gauvin, 2004; Gauvin et al., 2006) shows it can account for the reduction in the analytical total. Combining the literature review and the sub-surface charging modelling shows that hydrous silicate glass suffer greater internal electric fields than anhydrous silicate glass, hence H₂O appears to effect the dielectric properties of silicate glass. Future work quantifying the effect of H₂O and glass composition on the dielectric properties of silicate glass would help to understand this process further. A simple empirical correction, using hydrous glass standards, can greatly improve the accuracy of VBD. This provides an alternative technique for measuring the H₂O concentration of melt inclusions, at higher spatial resolution than SIMS and FTIR, which also provides the full glass composition at the same time, including volatiles such as S, Cl, and F.

7.3. Towards higher precision Fe oxidation state using the electron probe

The method for measuring the Fe oxidation state in silicate glass developed in Chapter 3 allows the Fe²⁺/Fe_T to be analysed in a single melt inclusion using the electron probe. This was previously only possible using synchrotron-based techniques (Cottrell et al., 2009). The method can be applied to hydrous silicate glass, which currently cannot be analysed reliably using μ XANES due to beam damage (Cottrell et al., 2018). It was shown that anhydrous silicate glass, which is typically thought of as stable under electron beams, does undergo beam damage. Anhydrous and hydrous silicate glass change Fe oxidation state via different mechanisms. Raman spectroscopy revealed that nanolites are formed during EPMA of hydrous silicate glass, which results in oxidation during analysis.

Use of this method on the experimental ETNA glasses produced in Chapter 5 showed that Fe reduction had occurred during glass synthesis due to fH_2 gradients across the capsule wall. The measured Fe²⁺/Fe_T was used to quantify the amount of H₂O added to the capsule during the experimental run to constrain

the total volatile budget of the capsules. When applied to melt inclusions from Etna, it revealed that both post-entrapment crystallisation of the host-olivine, and changes in oxidation state, were responsible for the variable $K_{D(\text{Fe-Mg})}^{\text{ol-melt}}$ measured.

This technique could be improved to give higher precision, as the current error of $\pm 0.1 \text{ Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ cannot discern differences in Fe oxidation state between MORBs and arcs ($0.68\text{--}0.87 \text{ Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$; Kelley and Cottrell, 2009) or due to degassing ($0.60\text{--}0.86 \text{ Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$; Moussallam et al., 2014). Precision is dictated by the number of X-rays measured, hence measuring more X-rays per analysis spot would improve precision. Alternatively, fewer analyses would be required to achieve the same precision, therefore spatial resolution would be improved and analysis time reduced. One way to increase the number of X-rays is to increase the beam current, but this increasing the rate of redox change, which can become too rapid to correct for. Alternatively, the electron probe itself could be modified.

The JEOL JXA 8530F Hyperprobe at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, UK, has two TAP and one TAPH crystal, which limits the number of X-rays on FeL that can be measured at the same time. H-type crystals lie on a smaller Rowland circle than normal WDS crystals. Hence, they are situated closer to the sample and therefore measure more X-rays at the same analytical conditions. The Cameca SX100 microprobe, also at the School of Earth Sciences, University of Bristol, UK, has two TAP and one LTAP crystal. L-type crystals have a larger Rowland circle, which improves wavelength resolution but typically measures fewer X-rays because it is further away from the sample. Figure 7.1 shows a comparison of all these TAP-type crystals. TAP-type crystals from the Cameca have higher count rates, and better wavelength resolution, than the JEOL and hence would produce more precise data. Unfortunately, these data were collected prior to the detector window in the Cameca LTAP being changed, after which absorption of soft X-rays increased, halving the count rates. Hence, the JEOL was used in Chapter 3.

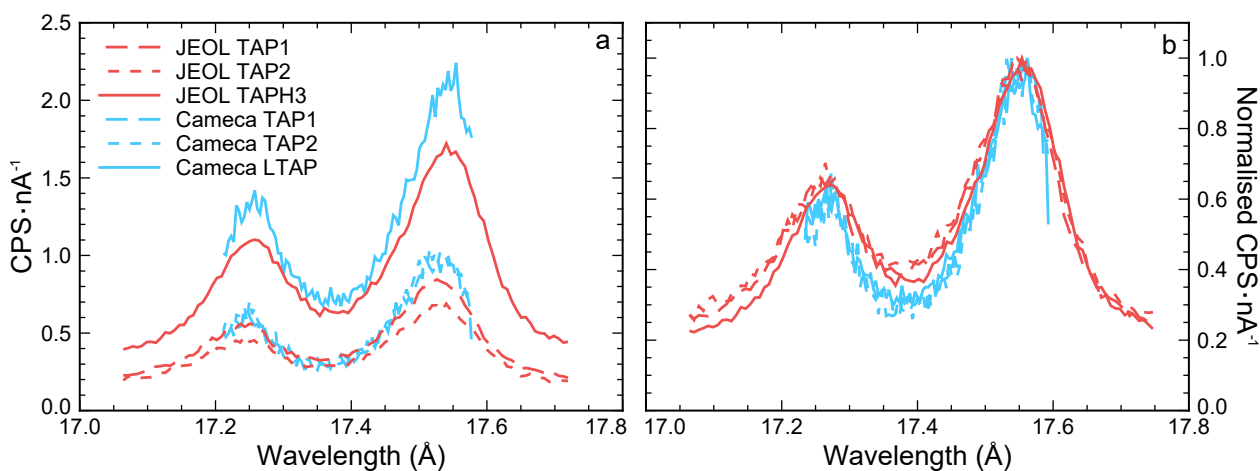


Figure 7.1: FeL wavescans using different TAP-type crystals on VG-2 (Smithsonian microbeam basaltic glass standard, Table 2.4): (a) counts per second per nA beam current ($\text{CPS}\cdot\text{nA}^{-1}$) to compare count rates, and (b) wavescans normalised to the height of their $\text{FeL}\alpha$ peak to compare wavelength resolution (lower saddle between the $\text{FeL}\alpha$ and $\text{FeL}\beta$ peaks indicates better wavelength resolution). Data are available in Table D.2.

An electron probe with five TAPH crystals (or LTAP depending on the exact crystals) would resolve smaller variations in Fe oxidation state or allow smaller melt inclusions to be analysed quicker. For instance, the set-up in Chapter 3 produced $\sim 1.4 \text{ CPS}\cdot\text{nA}^{-1}$ on $\text{FeL}\alpha_f$ (two JEOL TAP crystals) and $\sim 1.0 \text{ CPS}\cdot\text{nA}^{-1}$ on

$\text{Fe}L\beta_f$ (one JEOL TAPH crystal). Conversely, if there were five Cameca LTAP crystals, the count rates would be doubled ($\sim 3 \text{ CPS}\cdot\text{nA}^{-1}$ on $\text{Fe}L\alpha_f$ and $\sim 2 \text{ CPS}\cdot\text{nA}^{-1}$ on $\text{Fe}L\beta_f$). For the same number of points (ten, $4 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter analyses per melt inclusion and therefore $\sim 20 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter region analysed) and total analysis time (~ 30 mins), the precision would be improved by 30 %. Alternatively, this would halve the number of points, and therefore analysis time, required for the same precision (i.e., five vs. ten points and 15 vs. 30 mins total per analysis, therefore ~ 15 vs. $\sim 20 \mu\text{m}$ region in diameter analysed) improving the spatial resolution for single melt inclusions.

7.4. Accounting for the bubble in carbon isotope analysis of melt inclusions

Accurately measuring the carbon isotope ratio in melt inclusions is key in resolving many questions in petrology and volcanology. A step forward towards this is the synthesis and characterisation of three new hydrous, carbon-rich, basaltic glasses, with independently measured carbon isotope ratios, that can be used as standards for SIMS analysis (Chapter 4). Also, extensive work on a SIMS protocol for analysing carbon isotope ratios at high spatial resolution was conducted, which have showed the amendments required to achieve the goal of analysing single melt inclusions. The experimental protocol described in Chapter 5 highlighted where improvements can be made to obtain reliable carbon isotope fractionation factors between exsolved fluid and melt in the system basalt- H_2O - CO_2 . Both these chapters provide invaluable groundwork to conduct future studies on carbon isotope fractionation during degassing. Applying these techniques to understanding the relative diffusivities of carbon isotopes in silicate melts would also be useful for investigating disequilibrium bubble growth (e.g., Pichavant et al., 2018; Watson, 2017).

A different, but related, problem is dealing with the bubbles found in melt inclusions. Volatiles in shrinkage, rather than co-entrapped, bubbles were originally in the melt at the time of entrapment (e.g., MacLennan, 2017; Moore et al., 2015; Wallace et al., 2015). Hence, only measuring the glass in the melt inclusions does not constrain the total volatile composition of the melt at the time of entrapment. As volatiles isotopically fractionate during bubble formation (e.g., Aubaud et al., 2004; Watson, 2017), the carbon isotope ratio of the melt will have been modified post-entrapment. This may have occurred under equilibrium or kinetically-controlled conditions, depending on the relative diffusion rates of ^{12}C and ^{13}C into the shrinkage bubble. There are two ways that this could be accounted for.

Firstly, the carbon isotope ratio of the fluid in the bubble could be measured using Raman spectroscopy (e.g., Li et al., 2016). Molecular CO_2 has four vibrational modes: a symmetric stretch, two bending modes, and an antisymmetric stretch. The symmetric stretch and the first excited state of the bending mode, have the same symmetry and almost the same energies, and hence can mix by Fermi resonance (Fermi, 1931). This produces a Fermi diad, which are two peaks where the peak positions have been changed due to Fermi resonance (~ 1285 and $\sim 1388 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, Gordon and McCubbin, 1966). The distance between the two peaks relates to the density of the CO_2 hence, if the volume of the bubble is known (e.g., using transmitted light microscopy or X-ray μ -tomography), the concentration of CO_2 in the bubble can be calculated (Kagi et al., 2003). Additionally, the isotope ratio of the CO_2 will affect the exact energy of the vibrational modes. This will also split the peaks, producing an additional peak at $\sim 1370 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Howard-Lock and Stoicheff, 1971). The relative areas of the different peaks has been used to infer carbon isotope ratios of synthetic and natural fluid inclusions (Li et al., 2016). This assumes that all the carbon remains in the fluid and does not precipitate as carbonates on the walls of the bubble (Mathez and Delaney, 1981; Moore et al., 2015). Also, comparing

the carbon isotope ratios of the bubble and melt will show whether bubble formation in melt inclusions is an equilibrium or kinetically-driven process.

Alternatively, the fluid in the bubble could be dissolved back into the melt prior to analysis, hence the melt will contain all the dissolved carbon (e.g., Mironov et al., 2015). This can be achieved by taking the melt inclusion to high pressure and temperature, which raises the CO₂ solubility, and then quenching it at a rate that prevents new bubble formation. The bulk carbon composition of the melt inclusion should not be altered because the carbon solubility is low, and diffusivity slow, in olivine (Tingle et al., 1988), but the hydrogen composition will be altered (e.g., Gaetani et al., 2012). Hence H₂O concentrations, if required, will have to be analysed prior to heating using Raman spectroscopy as the melt inclusion cannot be exposed (e.g., Thomas et al., 2006). Dehydration of the melt inclusion decreases the melt density, and hence lowers the pressure in the melt inclusion, raising the homogenisation temperature of the bubble (Mironov et al., 2015). Instead, homogenising the melt inclusion under high H₂O pressure (e.g., 500 MPa) hydrates the melt inclusion, increasing the internal pressure and hence the bubble dissolves into the melt (Mironov et al., 2015). In this case, there will be no bubble, hence only the glass in the melt inclusion needs to be analysed to recover the carbon isotope ratio of the melt at the time of entrapment.

7.5. Correlative microanalysis of melt inclusions to understand eruptions

Changes in the melt composition prior to the 23 November 2013 paroxysm were investigated by analysing melt inclusions using a variety of micro-analytical techniques (Raman, SIMS, and EPMA). By combining these techniques, changes in the major element composition and Fe oxidation state (EPMA) could be correlated with changes in the concentration (H₂O – Raman; H₂O and CO₂ – SIMS; and volatiles by difference, S, Cl, and F – EPMA) and isotope ratio (δD and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ – SIMS) of volatiles. Additionally, these changes were compared with variations in the olivine composition and the presence of nanolites in the melt inclusions. Such datasets are only available for a limited number of eruptions, but provide invaluable information on the magmatic processes occurring prior to eruption (degassing and magma mixing) but also the post-entrapment processes that modify the melt inclusion composition. This dataset is the first geochemical dataset on the 23 November 2013 eruption and the only melt inclusion study on the 2011–2013 eruptive sequence. As such, it provides the only direct measurement of the volatile concentration of the magma during this eruptive sequence, which is higher than previous estimates using thermodynamic modelling of the mineral assemblage (Giuffrida and Viccaro, 2017). This dataset adds to the growing volatile data available for Etna, which shows that volatile concentrations and magma mixing are important for governing the style of eruption (e.g., Carlo and Pompilio, 2004; Collins et al., 2009; Métrich et al., 2004; Moretti et al., 2018; Spilliaert et al., 2006).

A major improvement to the current dataset would be additional carbon isotope ratio measurements of the melt inclusions. Etna is a fantastic volcano to analyse the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of melt inclusions because there is already extensive knowledge about the carbon isotope systematics of the gases (Aiuppa et al., 2004; Allard, 1983; Allard et al., 1991; Giammanco et al., 1998; Giammanco and Pecoraino, 2005; Martelli et al., 2008; Paonita et al., 2012; Rizzo et al., 2015, 2014; D’Alessandro et al., 1997). The best target to investigate the carbon isotope systematics of the magma at Etna would be products from an eruption where the carbon isotope ratio of the plume had been measured prior to, and during, eruption. In this way the measurements of melt and gas could be directly compared.

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Appendices

Appendix A – Stable isotope fractionation

A.1. Notation for isotope ratios

As natural variations in isotope ratios are small, isotope ratios are reported using delta (δ) notation in per mil (‰), which compares the isotopic ratio of a sample to a standard:

$$\delta = \left(\frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) \cdot 1000 \quad (\text{A.1})$$

where R_{sample} and R_{standard} are the isotope ratio using concentrations of the heavier (numerator) to lighter (denominator) isotope for the sample and standard, respectively. If $R_{\text{sample}} > R_{\text{standard}}$, $\delta > 0$; whereas if $R_{\text{sample}} < R_{\text{standard}}$, $\delta < 0$. Isotope ratios used in this study are summarised in Table A.1.

Table A.1: Definition of isotope systems used in this study.

Isotope system	R	Standard	R_{standard}
δD	$^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$	Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW)	1.5575×10^{-4}
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$	Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB)	1.1237×10^{-2}
$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	$^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$	Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW)	2.0052×10^{-3}

A.2. Definitions of the fractionation factor

The fractionation factor of a stable isotope system describes the direction (which phase becomes enriched in the heavy isotope) and magnitude (the size of the enrichment) during isotopic fractionation. The α fractionation factor ($\alpha_{\text{A-B}}$) between phase A and B is given by:

$$\alpha_{\text{A-B}} = \frac{R_{\text{A}}}{R_{\text{B}}} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

where R_{A} and R_{B} are the isotope ratios of phase A and B, respectively, expressed as the ratio of the concentration of the heavy to light isotope. The α fractionation factor can also be expressed using δ -notation by rearranging Equation A.1:

$$R = \left(\frac{R_{\text{standard}}}{1000} \right) \cdot (\delta + 1000) \quad (\text{A.3})$$

and substituting Equation A.3 into Equation A.2, such that:

$$\alpha_{\text{A-B}} = \left(\frac{1000 + \delta_{\text{A}}}{1000 + \delta_{\text{B}}} \right) \quad (\text{A.4})$$

where δ_{A} and δ_{B} are the isotope ratios in δ -notation of phase A and B, respectively. Alternatively, the Δ fractionation factor ($\Delta_{\text{A-B}}$) between phase A and B is given by:

$$\Delta_{\text{A-B}} = \delta_{\text{A}} - \delta_{\text{B}} \quad (\text{A.5})$$

which can be related to α_{A-B} by subtracting $(1000 + \delta_B)/(1000 + \delta_B)$ (i.e., 1) from both sides of Equation A.4, and then approximating $1000 + \delta_B \approx 1000$ as $\delta_B \ll 1000$:

$$\alpha_{A-B} - 1 = \frac{\delta_A - \delta_B}{1000 - \delta_B} \approx \frac{\delta_A - \delta_B}{1000} \quad (\text{A.6})$$

By substituting Equation A.5 into Equation A.6 and rearranging:

$$\Delta_{A-B} = 1000 \cdot (1 - \alpha_{A-B}) \quad (\text{A.7})$$

If $\alpha_{A-B} \approx 1$, which is commonly appropriate, then $\ln \alpha_{A-B} \approx 1 - \alpha_{A-B}$, hence:

$$\Delta_{A-B} = 1000 \cdot \ln \alpha_{A-B} \quad (\text{A.8})$$

A.3. Stable isotope fractionation during degassing

For degassing of an exsolved fluid from a melt, Equation A.5 becomes:

$$\Delta_{f-m} = \delta_f - \delta_m \quad (\text{A.9})$$

where Δ_{f-m} is the fractionation factor between exsolved fluid and melt, and δ_f and δ_m are the isotope ratios in δ -notation of the exsolved fluid and melt, respectively.

A.3.1. Closed-system degassing

Closed-system degassing occurs when the melt and exsolved fluid maintain equilibrium and no material is lost from the system, hence:

$$C_b = C_m - C_f \quad (\text{A.10})$$

where C_b , C_m , and C_f are the concentration of the volatile in the bulk, melt and fluid, respectively. From mass balance, the isotope ratios are related by:

$$C_b R_b = C_m R_m + C_f R_f \quad (\text{A.11})$$

where R_b , R_m , and R_f are the isotope ratios of the volatile expressed as ratio of the heavy to light isotope in the bulk, melt and fluid, respectively. This is approximately equal to:

$$C_b \delta_b = C_m \delta_m + C_f \delta_f \quad (\text{A.12})$$

Rearranging Equation A.11 for δ_f and substituting Equation A.10 for C_f gives:

$$\delta_f = \frac{C_b \delta_b - C_m \delta_m}{C_b - C_m} \quad (\text{A.13})$$

which can be substituted into Equation A.9 to give:

$$\Delta_{f-m} = \left(\frac{C_b \delta_b - C_m \delta_m}{C_b - C_m} \right) - \delta_f \quad (\text{A.14})$$

And then rearranged for δ_m :

$$\delta_m = \delta_b - \Delta_{f-m} \left(1 - \frac{C_m}{C_b} \right) \quad (\text{A.15})$$

Conversely, the relationship between the fluid concentration and isotope ratio is given by:

$$\delta_f = \delta_b + \Delta_{f-m} \left(1 - \frac{C_f}{C_b} \right) \quad (\text{A.16})$$

The bulk values will equal the initial values if the melt was undersaturated at the onset of degassing.

A.3.2. Open-system degassing

Alternatively, open-system degassing occurs when the melt and fluid are separated the instant any exsolved fluid forms. At the instant the exsolved fluid forms mass balance is conserved, hence:

$$\delta_f dC = d(\delta_m C) \quad (\text{A.17})$$

where dC is the amount of fluid formed with isotope ratio δ_f , which is taken from the melt which now has isotope ratio δ_m . Using the chain rule gives:

$$\delta_f dC = \delta_m dC + C d\delta_m \quad (\text{A.18})$$

$$C d\delta_m = dC(\delta_f - \delta_m) \quad (\text{A.19})$$

where $\delta_f - \delta_m$ can be substituted for Δ_{f-m} using Equation A.9, therefore:

$$C d\delta_m = \Delta_{f-m} dC \quad (\text{A.20})$$

$$\frac{d\delta_m}{\Delta_{f-m}} = \frac{dC}{C} \quad (\text{A.21})$$

If dC is small and Δ_{f-m} is constant, this can be integrated to any point along the degassing path (i.e., when the melt contains C_m of the volatile), therefore:

$$\frac{1}{\Delta_{f-m}} = \int_{\delta_b}^{\delta_m} d\delta_m = \int_{C_b}^{C_m} \frac{dC}{C} \quad (\text{A.22})$$

$$\frac{\delta_m - \delta_b}{\Delta_{f-m}} = \ln \frac{C_m}{C_b} \quad (\text{A.23})$$

which rearranged for δ_m gives:

$$\delta_m = \delta_b + \Delta_{f-m} \cdot \ln \frac{C_m}{C_b} \quad (\text{A.24})$$

where Δ_{f-m} can be either the equilibrium or kinetic fractionation factor, depending on whether the instantaneous fluid formed is in equilibrium with melt or not, but must be constant throughout degassing.

Appendix B

Silicate glass compositions

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3.

Table B.2: Abbreviated sample names in Table B.1.

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3.

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	^a Cl	^a S _T	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	^c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
Blundy et al. (2010)																		
[001] ^g	67.94	0.34	14.50	1.75	0.01	0.47	2.54	3.92	1.97	0.09	0.14	0.01	5.14	114		6.13	5.15	1
[002] ^g	65.80	0.33	13.47	1.95	0.07	0.52	1.95	6.18	1.85	0.03	0.13	0.02	5.39	40		7.50	5.39	1
[003] ^g	67.36	0.52	13.46	1.99	0.05	0.61	2.03	4.12	2.08	0.18	0.11	0.00	6.07	397		7.27	6.11	1
may25-2-4	75.58	0.47	11.56	1.88	0.06	0.29	0.72	4.12	2.84	0.18	0.13	0.00	2.23	1215		1.96	2.35	1
may25-3-3	73.25	0.40	12.08	1.66	0.03	0.18	0.85	4.62	2.58	0.05	0.14	0.00	2.54	673		3.98	2.61	1
May25-8-1	76.63	0.39	11.69	1.56	0.03	0.35	0.77	3.90	2.72	0.07	0.10	0.00	1.16			1.62	1.16	1
May25-9-1	76.31	0.55	11.98	1.58	0.00	0.25	0.63	4.00	2.83	0.10	0.10	0.02	1.59	154		1.49	1.61	1
[004] ^g	72.07	0.37	13.30	1.84	0.10	0.49	1.58	5.10	2.17	0.01	0.10	0.01	3.39	336		2.66	3.42	1
[005] ^g	74.20	0.27	12.34	1.79	0.00	0.28	1.06	5.18	2.60	0.07	0.13	0.01	2.67	245		1.88	2.69	1
[006] ^g	72.77	0.36	12.86	1.73	0.01	0.36	1.71	4.83	2.44	0.01	0.13	0.00	1.61	53		2.60	1.62	1
[007] ^g	69.05	0.35	14.62	1.98	0.08	0.44	2.46	4.70	2.01	0.17	0.13	0.05	4.01	160		3.77	4.03	1
[008] ^g	73.00	0.48	12.57	1.96	0.09	0.39	1.10	4.84	2.85	0.10	0.17	0.00	1.82	44		2.23	1.82	1
[009] ^g	73.42	0.41	11.74	1.94	0.08	0.36	1.06	5.39	2.54	0.09	0.12	0.01	1.92	89		2.63	1.93	1
[010] ^g	74.07	0.34	11.97	1.96	0.03	0.33	1.15	4.99	2.53	0.05	0.13	0.06	1.64	127		2.21	1.65	1
[011] ^g	70.92	0.30	11.84	1.82	0.05	0.26	1.15	5.08	2.49	0.05	0.13	0.01	2.75	173		5.70	2.77	1
[012] ^g	74.78	0.43	11.67	1.83	0.04	0.30	1.09	6.09	2.84	0.00	0.11	0.00	0.62			0.62	0.62	1
[013] ^g	76.08	0.43	11.12	1.74	0.00	0.21	0.64	4.22	2.99	0.08	0.22	0.02	1.55	4154		2.07	1.97	1
[014] ^g	75.33	0.43	11.36	1.99	0.06	0.37	0.64	4.33	2.91	0.02	0.17	0.03	1.44			2.16	1.44	1
[015] ^g	73.84	0.26	12.42	1.77	0.03	0.29	0.83	4.70	2.94	0.05	0.13	0.04	2.33	330		2.53	2.36	1
[016] ^g	77.39	0.36	11.47	1.64	0.00	0.21	0.63	4.45	3.00	0.08	0.17	0.00	0.27			0.42	0.27	1
[017] ^g	76.41	0.48	11.49	1.60	0.06	0.15	0.51	4.83	2.87	0.07	0.15	0.03	0.80	57		1.19	0.81	1
[018] ^g	74.38	0.39	11.62	1.93	0.10	0.61	0.83	4.19	2.92	0.11	0.15	0.01	2.19	75		2.55	2.20	1
[019] ^g	77.62	0.43	11.19	1.49	0.02	0.21	0.55	4.30	3.01	0.02	0.16	0.00	0.22			0.83	0.22	1
[020] ^g	77.62	0.43	11.19	1.49	0.02	0.21	0.55	4.30	3.01	0.02	0.16	0.00	0.34	71		0.83	0.35	1
[021] ^g	78.73	0.29	11.12	1.45	0.08	0.20	0.50	4.04	2.77	0.05	0.09	0.00	0.09			0.52	0.09	1
[022] ^g	77.44	0.30	11.75	1.44	0.02	0.17	1.03	4.13	2.89	0.08	0.10	0.00	0.16			0.49	0.16	1
[023] ^g	77.23	0.30	11.03	1.65	0.09	0.21	0.52	4.30	3.05	0.01	0.12	0.00	0.94			1.31	0.94	1
[024] ^g	75.63	0.19	12.69	1.59	0.00	0.15	1.12	4.17	2.76	0.01	0.13	0.00	1.29			1.38	1.29	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
[025] ^g	76.42	0.47	11.04	1.66	0.05	0.23	0.69	4.44	3.22	0.03	0.13	0.05	1.46			1.42	1.46	1
[026] ^g	70.30	0.55	14.72	1.76	0.06	0.40	1.85	5.12	2.30	0.13	0.13	0.00	2.70	112		2.48	2.71	1
[027] ^g	76.11	0.39	12.21	1.63	0.02	0.18	0.77	4.79	2.94	0.06	0.16	0.01	0.27	763		0.56	0.35	1
[028] ^g	78.00	0.38	10.72	1.71	0.06	0.09	0.40	4.04	4.25	0.05	0.15	0.00	0.16			-0.04	0.16	1
[029] ^g	78.27	0.27	10.68	1.69	0.05	0.13	0.28	4.05	3.94	0.14	0.15	0.00	0.31	395		0.16	0.35	1
[030] ^g	77.78	0.33	11.32	1.52	0.08	0.20	0.40	4.29	4.24	0.10	0.12	0.01	0.17	181		-0.55	0.19	1
[031] ^g	69.84	0.43	16.53	1.57	0.05	0.21	1.55	6.28	2.32	0.27	0.10	0.03	0.15	208		0.67	0.17	1
[032] ^g	73.16	0.24	14.46	1.08	0.03	0.26	1.72	5.56	1.40	0.05	0.04	0.00	1.11	278		1.88	1.14	1
[033] ^g	73.16	0.42	13.45	1.33	0.01	0.07	0.30	3.91	6.31	0.06	0.07	0.00	0.21	101		0.76	0.22	1
[034] ^g	73.47	0.37	13.64	0.97	0.03	0.12	0.93	5.07	3.03	0.00	0.12	0.03	0.07	226		2.13	0.09	1
Blundy et al. (2018)																		
PU32	46.93	0.75	12.58	9.72	0.18	16.63	10.33	1.13	0.41	0.11			0.00		0.83			2
PU58	46.66	0.78	13.04	10.26	0.18	14.74	10.77	1.25	0.42	0.07			0.00		0.21			2
PU359	47.01	0.81	13.80	9.91	0.19	13.73	11.18	1.35	0.45	0.08			0.00		0.75			2
PU361	46.72	0.75	12.48	10.01	0.18	16.21	10.31	1.19	0.38	0.12			0.00		0.23			2
Botchcharnikov et al. (2005)																		
B5	46.60	2.91	13.60	12.36		6.05	10.24	2.51	0.27				4.67		0.46	4.72	4.67	1
B6	48.17	2.98	14.08	12.94		6.26	10.50	2.61	0.29				2.00		0.61	1.61	2.00	1
B7	48.54	3.04	14.26	12.91		6.28	10.67	2.67	0.28				0.97		0.77	1.02	0.97	1
B8	48.68	3.08	14.45	12.67		6.31	10.76	2.65	0.30				0.82		0.84	0.87	0.82	1
B9	48.23	3.03	14.13	12.62		6.20	10.54	2.59	0.32				1.14		0.71	1.93	1.14	1
B10	47.80	2.96	14.00	12.61		6.17	10.41	2.62	0.30				2.43		0.6	2.57	2.43	1
B11	47.09	2.92	13.73	12.49		6.00	10.13	2.55	0.30				4.82		0.81	4.53	4.82	1
B12	48.85	3.08	14.35	12.02		6.30	10.63	2.70	0.29				1.90		0.89	1.63	1.90	1
B13	49.10	3.01	14.39	11.39		6.25	10.74	2.71	0.30				1.71		0.9	1.98	1.71	1
B14	49.72	3.11	14.48	11.33		6.34	10.80	2.72	0.31				1.06		0.92	1.09	1.06	1
B16	47.60	2.97	13.96	12.93		6.17	10.27	2.50	0.30				3.02		0.82	3.04	3.02	1
B17	47.06	2.89	13.80	12.65		6.05	10.23	2.57	0.26				4.67		0.4	3.64	4.67	1
B19	47.95	2.98	14.07	12.91		6.21	10.39	2.62	0.29				1.85		0.48	1.83	1.85	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
B20	48.99	3.07	14.36	12.80		6.33	10.69	2.78	0.29				0.72		0.75	0.33	0.72	1
B21	47.50	2.93	13.79	12.34		6.11	10.33	2.59	0.30				2.90		0.51	3.44	2.90	1
B22	48.76	3.04	14.29	12.77		6.26	10.60	2.71	0.30				0.94		0.72	0.87	0.94	1
Chabiron et al. (2001)																		
F1 9	69.60	0.12	14.62	1.19	0.15			5.01	5.81		Cl	F	1.31			1.29	1.31	1
F2 1	70.19	0.07	13.63	1.46	0.17	0.05		5.05	5.62				1.07			1.44	1.07	1
F2 2	72.59	0.03	11.93	1.18	0.15	0.05	0.05	4.92	4.88		0.15		1.98			2.11	1.98	1
F3 5	75.07	0.13	11.22	0.82	0.08		0.03	4.36	4.52		0.20		2.05			1.61	2.05	1
F3 6	71.50	0.05	12.41	1.01	0.07	0.06	0.18	4.59	4.95		0.20		2.17			2.19	2.17	1
F4 4	73.03	0.07	11.75	1.14	0.13	0.03	0.11	4.74	4.53		0.17		2.40			2.00	2.40	1
F6 1	71.98	0.15	12.67	1.32	0.23			5.62	3.60			0.51	3.73			3.77	3.73	1
F6 7	73.99	0.14	11.78	0.85	0.04	0.07	0.37	4.75	4.62		0.18		2.03			2.19	2.03	1
F6 10	75.71	0.11	11.51	0.64	0.14	0.04	0.24	4.83	4.47		0.15	0.95	0.57			1.14	0.57	1
Cottrell et al. (2009)																		
AII-35	50.81	1.73	16.14	9.53		7.40	11.20	2.75	0.15	0.14			0.00					2
LW_0	49.42	1.94	17.21	10.17		6.13	8.78	3.17	1.50	1.12			0.00		0.84			2
LW_10	49.42	1.94	17.21	10.17		6.13	8.78	3.17	1.50	1.12			0.00		0.77			2
LW_-20	49.42	1.94	17.21	10.17		6.13	8.78	3.17	1.50	1.12			0.00		0.91			2
Cottrell and Kelley (2011)																		
T558-R1	50.29	1.68	14.68	10.73	0.20	7.37	11.78	2.41	0.06	0.15			0.14		0.84	0.47	0.14	1
D12-5	49.70	1.28	15.50	9.40	0.15	8.53	12.30	2.42	0.03				0.12		0.837	0.52	0.12	1
CH 17-4	50.20	1.32	16.32	8.76		8.07	12.12	2.60	0.08	0.16			0.17		0.85	0.22	0.17	1
CH 19-3	50.28	1.29	15.88	9.14	0.13	8.93	12.25	2.58	0.10	0.12			0.15		0.842	-0.86	0.15	1
CH 21-1	49.88	1.36	16.26	8.93	0.17	8.82	12.20	2.38	0.14	0.11			0.26		0.85	-0.40	0.26	1
CH 30-1	50.42	1.88	13.87	11.51	0.24	7.24	11.37	2.67	0.10	0.17			0.24		0.833	0.32	0.24	1
CH 5-1	50.40	2.06	14.37	11.16	0.22	6.32	10.84	3.39	0.26	0.20			0.44		0.834	0.57	0.44	1
CH 6-1	50.48	1.95	14.74	10.42	0.22	6.99	11.04	3.02	0.32	0.21			0.34		0.838	0.42	0.34	1
CH 61-1	50.93	1.59	14.60	10.05	0.18	8.13	12.22	2.73	0.08	0.13			0.17		0.837	-0.82	0.17	1
CH 84-2	51.17	1.72	14.51	10.72	0.21	7.64	12.05	2.76	0.15	0.10			0.20		0.84	-1.22	0.2	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
CH 15-2	50.42	1.46	15.08	9.51	0.13	8.06	12.12	2.56	0.11	0.18			0.19		0.828	0.19	0.19	1
CH 33-1	50.02	1.68	14.97	9.88	0.18	7.66	11.94	2.38	0.13	0.17			0.22		0.847	0.82	0.22	1
EN113 13D-1	48.91	1.50	17.11	8.70	0.04	8.15	11.75	3.54		0.17			0.14		0.845	-0.02	0.14	1
RAIT 02-D120	50.65	2.14	13.75	12.97		6.18	10.45	2.75	0.15	0.21			0.32		0.822	0.49	0.32	1
RISE 3-D30	51.83	2.12	13.91	11.96		6.28	10.86	2.85	0.22	0.17			0.33		0.828	-0.43	0.33	1
RAIT 02 D 12-1	49.03	1.32	17.35	8.90		8.70	11.40	2.78	0.14	0.17			0.20		0.841	0.05	0.2	1
SIQ D3-1	50.19	0.98	15.78	9.10		8.78	12.84	1.97	0.05	0.14			0.06		0.843	0.01	0.06	1
TW74-D7-1	48.59	0.98	17.55	7.98		9.51	12.22	2.30	0.04	0.06			0.08		0.841	0.63	0.08	1
SIQ D3-3	49.96	1.00	15.63	9.06		8.75	12.87	1.96	0.05	0.13			0.06		0.838	0.43	0.06	1
K 10-34	48.06	0.99	17.33	8.54		8.99	12.02	2.35	0.05	0.07			0.22		0.851	1.46	0.22	1
K 14-3	51.21	1.76	13.48	11.59		6.19	10.86	2.50	0.17	0.17			0.48		0.833	1.85	0.48	1
K 18-21	50.72	1.76	13.93	11.18		7.08	10.75	2.33	0.17	0.17			0.49		0.832	1.70	0.49	1
KK78-D17-14	49.59	0.86	16.12	9.19		9.72	11.96	2.18	0.04	0.07			0.12		0.849	0.12	0.12	1
KK78-D17-4	49.46	0.84	16.06	9.19		9.90	11.99	2.12	0.04	0.07			0.14		0.854	0.18	0.14	1
KK78-D17-32	49.63	0.85	16.19	9.24		9.76	11.76	2.15	0.05	0.09			0.13		0.856	0.13	0.13	1
KK78-D17-3	49.77	0.85	15.86	9.28		9.92	12.07	2.16	0.05	0.09			0.12		0.859	-0.20	0.12	1
KK78-D21-2	48.41	0.93	16.98	9.58		9.04	12.03	2.27	0.05	0.10			0.15		0.846	0.45	0.15	1
V33-7-3	51.70	1.71	15.95	8.70		6.56	10.24	3.84	0.31	0.19			0.45		0.845	0.65	0.45	1
V33-8-8,7	52.23	1.28	16.63	7.72		7.39	11.01	3.21	0.34	0.16			0.33		0.853	-0.10	0.33	1
RSR1979-011-005	51.27	1.77	14.98	10.58		6.83	10.61	3.10	0.10	0.17			0.33		0.856	0.42	0.33	1
SIIndianOcean	52.91	1.27	15.45	9.13		7.74	11.18	2.51	0.07	0.10			0.13		0.842	-0.52	0.13	1
VG-2	50.82	1.85	14.06	11.84	0.22	6.71	11.12	2.62	0.19	0.20			0.02		0.836	0.15	0.02	1
T469-24	50.18	2.21	14.47	11.08	0.22	6.27	10.81	3.00	0.52	0.32			0.52		0.834	0.72	0.52	1
T464-03	51.14	1.66	15.31	9.92	0.19	7.05	11.27	2.69	0.50	0.27			0.44		0.829	-0.19	0.44	1
T471-08	50.76	1.71	15.06	10.00	0.19	6.99	11.67	2.73	0.52	0.27			0.44		0.829	-0.09	0.44	1
T469-22	50.85	1.68	14.99	9.90	0.22	7.13	11.77	2.71	0.48	0.26			0.43		0.833	-0.17	0.43	1
T465-01	51.40	1.73	15.00	10.45	0.21	6.68	10.58	2.76	0.48	0.25			0.40		0.838	0.27	0.4	1
T471-14	50.68	1.76	14.81	10.07	0.22	7.12	11.52	2.76	0.43	0.24			0.40		0.835	0.20	0.4	1
T469-10	50.32	1.84	14.86	10.53	0.21	6.90	11.35	2.82	0.36	0.25			0.39		0.833	0.36	0.39	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
T471-23	50.96	1.65	14.86	9.63	0.20	7.15	11.63	2.97	0.37	0.26			0.37		0.827	0.13	0.37	1
T463-04	51.04	1.46	15.77	9.09	0.19	7.58	12.08	2.46	0.42	0.22			0.37		0.833	-0.48	0.37	1
JDF C2-1	52.00	2.56	13.20	14.31		4.76	9.53	3.15	0.37	0.38			0.16		0.87	-0.47	0.16	1
JDF C6-1	50.16	1.75	14.26	11.57		7.22	11.46	2.33	0.16	0.18			0.22		0.837	0.70	0.22	1
JDF D11-2	48.65	1.44	15.37	10.26		7.60	12.27	2.80	0.20	0.17			0.22		0.833	1.05	0.22	1
JDF D5-2	50.41	1.56	14.54	10.79		7.34	11.95	2.23	0.22	0.20			0.20		0.841	0.57	0.2	1
JDFD2	50.95	1.88	13.99	12.22	0.22	6.50	10.96	2.62	0.20	0.22			0.45		0.833	0.01	0.45	1
2D47-1	51.09	1.57	15.20	9.48	0.17	7.87	10.68	3.07	0.29	0.21			0.33		0.841	0.20	0.33	1
523-2-1	50.33	1.44	14.86	9.84	0.16	8.50	10.95	2.64	0.34				0.50		0.857	0.78	0.5	1
ALV 527 1-1	48.41	0.69	16.93	9.01		9.48	12.56	2.00	0.07	0.06			0.14		0.872	0.66	0.14	1
TR138 11D-1	51.42	1.50	15.39	9.93		7.37	11.39	2.82	0.09	0.14			0.23		0.845	-0.22	0.23	1
TR138 2D-2	50.37	0.95	16.51	8.21	0.16	9.15	11.74	2.37	0.07	0.08			0.25		0.857	0.26	0.25	1
TR138 9D-4	51.55	1.58	14.99	10.06		7.01	11.52	2.88	0.07	0.15			0.25		0.855	0.03	0.25	1
EN026 10D-3g	51.37	1.41	15.43	9.68	0.18	7.59	11.46	2.44	0.30				0.76		0.844	-0.03	0.76	1
TR119 6D-1	51.20	1.09	14.80	9.76		7.58	12.51	2.19	0.12	0.15			0.29		0.85	0.44	0.29	1
TR119 6D-4	51.38	1.25	14.54	10.48		7.05	11.84	2.24	0.14	0.15			0.34		0.841	0.74	0.34	1
EN25 2D-4	50.84	1.30	14.71	11.25		7.48	12.05	2.10	0.04	0.15			0.14		0.835	-0.13	0.14	1
EN25 6D-3	51.50	1.29	14.16	12.20		6.91	11.46	2.07	0.10	0.12			0.30		0.845	-0.02	0.3	1
2D43	50.33	1.84	14.82	9.96	0.19	7.71	10.80	2.89	0.73	0.31			0.54		0.854	0.26	0.54	1
CH98 DR11	50.14	1.46	14.81	10.30	0.19	8.67	11.23	2.53	0.07	0.15			0.23		0.846	0.27	0.23	1
Delaney and Karsten (1981)																		
DC-2	77.10	0.10	12.30	0.99			0.30	4.20	4.70				0.20			0.20	0.20	1
D119_edge	74.40	0.10	11.80	0.90			0.20	4.20	4.30				3.70			4.00	3.70	1
D119_centre	76.10	0.10	12.00	0.99			0.30	4.20	4.90				0.20			1.30	0.20	1
C120_edge	75.50	0.10	12.10	0.99			0.30	4.10	4.40				3.70			2.40	3.70	1
D120_centre	76.60	0.10	12.20	1.08			0.30	4.20	4.80				0.20			0.60	0.20	1
D121_edge	74.50	0.10	12.10	0.99			0.30	4.20	4.40				3.70			3.30	3.70	1
D121_centre	77.30	0.10	12.60	0.99			0.30	4.20	4.80				0.20			-0.40	0.20	1
D122_egde	74.50	0.10	11.80	0.90			0.30	4.10	4.50				1.60			3.70	1.60	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	^a	^a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	^c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	^f
D122_centre	77.00	0.10	12.20	0.99			0.30	4.00	5.00				0.20			0.30	0.20	1
D123_edge	73.90	0.10	11.80	0.90			0.30	4.00	4.60				3.70			4.30	3.70	1
D123_centre	74.70	0.10	12.10	0.99			0.20	4.00	4.50				3.70			3.30	3.70	1
Devine et al. (1995)																		
VNM50-15	76.60	0.08	12.32	1.05	0.05	0.04	0.37	4.41	4.64		Cl	F				0.12	0.16	1
PCD	76.40	0.07	12.44	1.02	0.03	0.02	0.53	4.21	4.68		0.1209	0.0859	0.16			0.36	0.17	1
IF35-1	74.39	0.03	13.65	0.56	0.13	0.04	0.47	4.25	4.21		0.0671	0.0587	0.17			2.11	1.36	1
M3N	71.38	0.26	13.05	1.56	0.02	0.29	1.19	4.06	4.11		0.0117	0.0822	1.36			3.77	3.95	1
M6N	69.47	0.30	12.84	1.48	0.05	0.25	1.19	4.05	4.02		0.0804	0.0561	3.95			6.03	6.38	1
495	75.62	0.10	12.22	0.95	0.06	0.04	0.35	4.32	4.51		0.0946	0.0616	1.42			1.72	1.42	1
508	75.01	0.09	11.96	0.93	0.06	0.04	0.34	4.19	4.41				2.58			2.87	2.58	1
494	73.72	0.11	11.79	1.00	0.06	0.04	0.39	4.21	4.38				4.09			4.19	4.09	1
498	73.75	0.09	11.78	0.65	0.03	0.04	0.33	4.31	4.46				4.72			4.49	4.72	1
510	71.82	0.10	11.62	0.78	0.06	0.04	0.32	4.18	4.17				6.23			6.82	6.23	1
Di Genova et al. (2013, 2014, 2016)																		
PS0.5 or PSG1	70.02	0.49	9.18	8.30	0.39	0.08	0.59	5.94	3.96	0.04	Cr ₂ O ₃	0.01	0.72		0.64	0.67	0.72	3
PS2.2 or PSG2	69.97	0.48	9.01	8.34	0.36	0.06	0.59	5.80	3.99	0.04	0.00		2.11		0.52	0.91	2.11	3
PS3.5 or PSG3	68.48	0.48	8.90	8.14	0.38	0.07	0.56	5.14	4.00	0.03	0.01		3.57		0.44	3.30	3.57	3
PS1.1 or PSG6	69.78	0.49	9.09	8.44	0.37	0.08	0.58	5.74	3.99	0.02	0.01		1.16		0.54	0.98	1.16	3
PSG dry	70.05	0.49	9.15	8.58	0.38	0.08	0.57	5.82	4.08	0.03	0.01		0.02		0.30	0.09	0.02	1
ETN dry	48.95	1.67	17.00	10.08	0.24	5.54	10.18	3.72	1.85	0.01	0.47		0.02		0.24	-0.56	0.02	1
ETN 1.4	47.96	1.65	16.68	10.17	0.22	5.39	10.09	3.66	1.83	0.02	0.53		1.48		0.68	1.44	1.48	1
ETN 2.9	47.90	1.61	16.62	10.15	0.20	5.29	9.92	3.59	1.78	0.01	0.47		2.40		0.68	2.10	2.40	1
FR DRY	56.55	0.81	17.92	6.59	0.17	2.36	5.52	4.55	4.53	0.01	0.45		0.02		0.21	-0.04	0.02	1
FR 1.6	56.30	0.80	17.89	6.11	0.16	2.23	5.25	4.50	4.49	0.01	0.35		1.59		0.68	1.69	1.59	1
FR 2.7	55.14	0.78	17.44	6.74	0.16	2.17	5.25	4.37	4.32	0.02	0.42		2.69		0.72	2.98	2.69	1
FR 3.8	54.69	0.77	17.41	6.35	0.17	2.14	5.20	4.30	4.32	0.02	0.43		3.76		0.59	3.91	3.76	1
FR 6.3	53.49	0.76	16.73	6.19	0.14	2.09	4.99	4.06	4.22	0.01	0.44		6.32		0.66	6.65	6.32	1
Di Genova et al. (2014, 2017a)																		

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
AMS1	57.72	0.39	18.40	4.51	0.10	1.46	4.23	3.72	7.90	0.19			1.29					2
AMS2	56.97	0.38	18.16	4.45	0.10	1.44	4.18	3.67	7.80	0.19			2.57					2
AMS4	55.68	0.38	17.75	4.35	0.10	1.41	4.08	3.59	7.62	0.18			4.78					2
Di Genova et al. (2016)																		
FSP1	72.53	0.44	8.70	9.02	0.34	0.17	0.45	4.59	4.09				0.00		0.17	-1.16	0.00	3
FSP2	71.89	0.43	8.78	8.78	0.35	0.16	0.43	4.37	4.01				0.00		0.26	0.07	0.00	3
FSP3	72.94	0.42	8.92	8.55	0.37	0.17	0.44	4.46	4.10				0.00		0.42	-0.93	0.00	3
FSP4	71.93	0.43	8.97	8.93	0.37	0.17	0.46	4.72	4.18				0.00		0.38	-0.77	0.00	3
FSP5	73.75	0.41	9.06	7.73	0.30	0.15	0.37	4.08	3.94				0.00		0.31	-0.38	0.00	3
FSP6	73.11	0.43	8.97	8.34	0.37	0.17	0.47	4.55	4.18				0.00		0.60	-0.96	0.00	3
FSP7	73.44	0.43	9.05	7.71	0.35	0.17	0.40	4.08	3.99				0.00		0.65	0.08	0.00	3
FSP8	74.62	0.45	9.05	7.17	0.38	0.18	0.45	4.06	4.05				0.00		0.74	-0.62	0.00	3
FSP9	74.24	0.44	9.01	7.04	0.36	0.17	0.47	4.19	4.14				0.00		0.76	-0.24	0.00	3
Di Genova et al. (2017a)																		
A or Y-A	77.63	0.11	12.73	3.03	0.03	0.06	0.92	4.44	1.62	0.00			0.00		0.45	-0.76	0.00	3
B or Y-B	77.28	0.14	13.39	2.94	0.02	0.06	0.75	2.71	3.61	0.03			0.00		0.56	-1.07	0.00	3
C	77.56	0.11	12.42	1.52	0.04	0.08	0.85	3.07	4.08	0.04			0.00		0.54	0.15	0.00	1
D	76.83	0.11	12.43	2.96	0.05	0.07	0.90	2.93	4.29	0.04			0.00		0.43	-0.80	0.00	1
E of Y-E	75.33	0.12	13.61	2.93	0.03	0.07	0.88	1.41	6.80	0.06			0.00		0.43	-1.43	0.00	3
F	78.87	0.10	12.52	1.55	0.04	0.06	0.84	1.01	5.28	0.02			0.00		0.56	-0.37	0.00	1
G or Y-G	77.86	0.12	11.69	2.99	0.04	0.07	0.85	1.05	5.34	0.00			0.00		0.51	-0.17	0.00	3
H or Y-H	77.25	0.10	11.95	2.62	0.06	0.22	1.08	3.23	4.35	0.05			0.00		0.42	-1.08	0.00	3
I	76.24	0.06	11.46	2.85	0.03	0.44	1.31	2.99	3.83	0.04			0.00		0.42	0.57	0.00	1
J or Y-J	73.75	0.31	11.99	3.31	0.07	1.64	2.98	3.16	3.56	0.00			0.00		0.40	-0.99	0.00	3
L or Y-L	71.22	0.28	10.86	6.24	0.05	1.58	2.72	2.89	3.28	0.05			0.00		0.39	0.40	0.00	3
Drew et al. (2016)																		
PC-P1.2-2	72.09	0.03	11.76	0.63		0.00	0.41	2.77	4.67				4.94	196		7.58	4.94	1
PC-P1.4	71.84	0.03	12.36	0.68		0.01	0.43	1.22	7.98				4.69	179		5.37	4.69	1
PC-P2.6	71.31	0.06	11.54	0.66		0.00	0.42	3.52	4.15				3.45	270		8.27	3.45	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
PC-P3.1-1	71.08	0.01	12.22	0.69		0.00	0.43	1.24	8.61				4.59	103		5.63	4.59	1
PC-P3.2	71.89	0.04	12.07	0.69		0.00	0.43	2.51	4.50				5.33	410		7.78	5.33	1
PC-P3.3	72.58	0.00	11.80	0.64		0.00	0.42	3.56	4.11				2.27	120		6.82	2.27	1
PC-P4.1	71.59	0.02	11.86	0.60		0.00	0.34	4.01	4.15				3.49	190		7.36	3.49	1
PC-P5.1-1	73.06	0.06	11.84	1.00		0.03	0.44	3.11	5.15				4.79	396		5.21	4.79	1
PC-P5.1-2	73.17	0.04	11.86	0.97		0.03	0.43	3.15	5.22				3.93	393		5.03	3.93	1
PC-P6.3-1	71.68	0.02	12.23	0.66		0.00	0.42	1.24	8.04				3.84	97		5.63	3.84	1
PC-P6.3-2	73.59	0.02	12.11	0.64		0.00	0.41	3.15	4.90				4.83	79		5.11	4.83	1
Gaillard et al. (2001)																		
NNO+6.6 1/1	73.62	0.00	11.04	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.56	4.34				6.23		0.03	6.89	6.23	1
NNO+6.6 1/2	72.84	0.00	11.05	0.74	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.67	4.59				6.16		0.02	7.03	6.16	1
NNO+6.6 1/7	67.85	0.27	11.76	2.73	0.00	0.01	0.33	5.29	4.41				6.05		0.01	7.04	6.05	1
NNO+6.6 1/8	72.55	0.08	11.74	0.84	0.00	0.21	1.26	3.14	2.76				5.95		0.03	7.32	5.95	1
NNO+6.6 1/9	68.09	0.09	14.81	0.57	0.00	0.03	0.21	4.07	3.52				6.49		0.03	8.56	6.49	1
NNO+1.55 2/2	72.72	0.00	10.95	0.81	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.74	4.54				6.10		0.17	7.18	6.10	1
NNO+1.55 2/3	72.30	0.00	11.23	1.59	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.71	4.38				6.26		0.13	6.63	6.26	1
NNO+1.55 2/7	67.48	0.24	11.77	3.02	0.00	0.00	0.32	5.18	4.41				6.15		0.08	7.26	6.15	1
NNO-0.72 3/2	72.21	0.00	10.94	0.78	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.75	4.44				6.40		0.23	7.82	6.40	1
NNO-0.72 3/3	71.36	0.00	11.12	1.58	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.78	4.23				6.25		0.22	7.78	6.25	1
NNO-0.72 3/4	71.21	0.00	10.80	2.37	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.62	4.24				6.20		0.19	7.55	6.20	1
NNO-0.72 3/7	67.76	0.17	11.55	2.95	0.00	0.00	0.29	4.99	4.35				6.38		0.15	7.65	6.38	1
NNO-0.72 3/8	72.27	0.10	11.38	0.89	0.00	0.09	1.15	3.10	2.64				6.01		0.54	8.33	6.01	1
NNO-0.72 3/9	67.91	0.06	14.75	0.52	0.00	0.02	0.21	3.85	3.41				6.47		0.47	9.25	6.47	1
NNO-1.35 4/1	72.94	0.00	11.03	0.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.62	4.36				6.39		0.26	7.69	6.39	1
NNO-1.35 4/2	72.23	0.00	11.01	0.48	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.58	4.51				6.25		0.25	8.16	6.25	1
NNO-1.35 4/3	71.87	0.00	11.20	0.82	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.71	4.36				6.21		0.25	7.98	6.21	1
NNO-1.35 4/4	71.80	0.00	10.98	1.55	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.66	4.32				6.25		0.23	7.55	6.25	1
NNO-1.35 4/5	71.75	0.00	10.92	1.86	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.71	4.04				6.14		0.26	7.57	6.14	1
NNO-1.35 4/6	71.56	0.00	10.94	2.48	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.38	4.11				6.10		0.25	7.32	6.10	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
NNO-1.35 4/7	68.23	0.33	11.87	2.63	0.00	0.00	0.32	5.07	4.22				6.10		0.16	7.09	6.10	1
NNO-1.35 4/8	72.55	0.14	11.82	0.50	0.00	0.20	1.18	3.12	2.58				6.21		0.64	7.89	6.21	1
NNO-1.35 4/9	67.40	0.07	14.89	0.39	0.00	0.00	0.18	3.93	3.37				6.63		0.47	9.76	6.63	1
Gurenko et al. (2005)																		
												Cl						
42384	73.50	0.21	12.18	1.91	0.05	0.22	1.61	3.52	2.69	0.02		0.24	6.50			3.64	6.50	1
42392	74.97	0.14	12.09	1.93	0.06	0.16	1.44	3.35	3.07	0.01		0.25	5.20			2.32	5.20	1
32-1	73.50	0.28	13.30	1.76	0.06	0.11	1.93	3.86	2.47	0.04		0.21	5.80			2.28	5.80	1
38-1	75.37	0.20	12.56	1.93	0.06	0.21	1.84	3.97	2.54	0.01		0.24	1.70			0.86	1.70	1
70-1	73.73	0.11	11.97	1.83	0.10	0.13	1.37	2.90	3.26	0.06		0.28	5.80			4.06	5.80	1
71-1	74.01	0.16	12.55	1.82	0.06	0.15	1.91	2.97	2.56	0.02		0.23	5.60			3.36	5.60	1
72-1	72.77	0.22	13.07	1.82	0.05	0.14	2.13	3.44	2.20	0.07		0.22	5.10			3.67	5.10	1
74-1	73.70	0.22	12.38	1.93	0.06	0.16	1.79	3.04	3.04	0.04		0.26	5.00			3.17	5.00	1
47-1	76.23	0.12	12.33	1.35	0.05	0.20	1.61	3.76	2.69	0.06		0.19	3.40			1.26	3.40	1
55-1	75.63	0.19	12.65	1.71	0.05	0.27	1.74	3.55	2.66	0.01		0.24	3.90			1.11	3.90	1
75-1	74.57	0.19	12.33	1.50	0.03	0.24	1.69	3.31	2.69	0.05		0.22	4.80			3.01	4.80	1
77-1	75.53	0.17	12.41	1.61	0.05	0.25	1.54	3.29	2.75	0.02		0.24	4.50			1.96	4.50	1
Kelley and Cottrell (2009)																		
												St						
EN113_13D-1B	48.16	1.48	17.17	8.88	0.20	7.91	11.70	3.22	0.02	0.10		0.0861	0.14		0.85	0.93	0.14	1
ALV 527 1-1	48.41	0.69	16.93	9.01		9.48	12.56	2.00	0.07	0.06		0.0867	0.14		0.87	0.57	0.14	1
CH 6-1	50.48	1.95	14.74	10.42	0.22	6.99	11.04	3.02	0.32	0.21			0.34	170	0.84	0.42	0.36	1
EN25 6D-3	51.50	1.29	14.16	12.20		6.91	11.46	2.07	0.10	0.12			0.30		0.85	-0.01	0.30	1
K 10-34	48.06	0.99	17.33	8.54		8.99	12.02	2.35	0.05	0.07			0.22	177	0.85	1.46	0.24	1
K 14-3	51.21	1.76	13.48	11.59		6.19	10.86	2.50	0.17	0.17			0.48	120	0.83	1.85	0.49	1
K 18-21	50.72	1.76	13.93	11.18		7.08	10.75	2.33	0.17	0.17			0.49	161	0.83	1.70	0.51	1
JDFD2	50.95	1.88	13.99	12.22	0.22	6.50	10.96	2.62	0.20	0.22			0.45	252	0.83	0.01	0.48	1
76-1-1	52.79	1.62	15.88	9.48		7.23	10.37	3.48	0.23	0.18			0.73	180	0.84	-1.43	0.75	1
71-1-14	51.70	1.11	16.50	7.72	0.15	6.34	11.70	2.99	0.42	0.20			1.82	128	0.81	1.01	1.83	1
74-1-1	51.09	1.13	17.83	7.22	0.15	7.72	11.83	2.75	0.30	0.17			1.00	112	0.83	-0.33	1.01	1
46-1-6	51.46	1.12	16.95	7.81	0.15	7.07	11.56	2.70	0.22	0.15			1.41	111	0.83	0.66	1.42	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
47-1-5	51.22	0.96	16.60	7.53	0.16	7.33	12.12	2.49	0.24	0.13			1.76	66	0.83	1.08	1.77	1
75-1-2	52.30	1.61	16.38	8.38		7.33	10.60	3.27	0.35	0.18			0.72	227	0.84	-0.55	0.74	1
73-2-1	51.90	1.41	17.15	7.82	0.15	6.69	10.53	3.56	0.33	0.18			1.15	160	0.83	0.13	1.17	1
80-1-3	49.56	0.84	17.93	8.61	0.16	8.60	11.55	2.40	0.35	0.14			0.57	295	0.85	-0.28	0.60	1
82-1-1	51.40	1.27	16.60	7.94	0.16	6.43	11.22	3.07	0.24	0.17			1.69	109	0.82	1.34	1.70	1
WOK 5-4	50.67	0.93	17.49	7.20	0.16	7.34	11.86	2.57	0.29	0.12			1.60	64	0.83	1.23	1.61	1
WOK 10-1	51.85	1.24	16.15	8.21	0.14	6.60	11.16	2.91	0.26	0.13			1.14	120	0.83	1.19	1.15	1
WOK 16-2	51.12	1.53	15.99	9.13	0.17	7.54	10.67	3.12	0.19	0.18			0.64	184	0.84	0.20	0.66	1
WOK 28-3	49.95	1.22	17.56	9.22	0.22	7.61	11.14	3.21	0.10	0.13			0.50	183	0.85	-0.51	0.52	1
ALV 1833-11	51.13	1.04	17.16	7.55	0.15	7.55	11.92	2.86	0.25	0.18			1.20	102	0.84	0.08	1.21	1
ALV 1839-21	51.45	1.17	17.84	7.63	0.14	7.47	11.41	2.58	0.27	0.13			1.21	94	0.83	-0.23	1.22	1
ALV 1840-3	51.83	1.18	16.86	7.99	0.15	6.78	10.66	3.09	0.30	0.13			1.26	113	0.83	0.88	1.27	1
ALV 1846-9	49.67	0.57	17.45	7.03	0.16	6.95	13.46	2.07	0.71	0.13	0.0370		1.89		0.82	1.62	1.89	1
ALV 1846-12	50.75	1.11	17.30	7.56	0.15	7.00	11.39	2.75	0.40	0.18			1.55	90	0.83	1.27	1.56	1
108153-A	52.48	0.98	16.45	6.64	0.13	4.95	6.90	3.41	1.06	0.40	0.2500		4.00	296	0.8	6.20	4.03	1
2A/22/5/92-A	52.84	1.16	16.36	10.57	0.23	4.36	7.27	2.82	0.65	0.14	0.0790		2.90	13	0.8	3.29	2.90	1
2A/22/5/92-B	51.54	1.18	16.32	10.22	0.25	4.21	7.50	3.95	0.64	0.16	0.1026		3.36	19	0.78	3.68	3.36	1
G98-02	49.25	1.32	20.34	7.40	0.15	3.80	13.04	3.24	0.54	0.15			0.26	99	0.82	0.62	0.27	1
05AUNY17.1	48.73	0.66	17.19	7.82	0.14	4.45	10.50	2.16	0.54	0.17			5.39	145	0.68	7.36	5.40	1
GUG BB	44.61	1.10	17.81	11.53	0.21	5.87	12.10	1.95	0.33	0.10			2.80	176	0.76	4.08	2.82	1
GUG D	45.70	0.74	18.01	11.32	0.24	5.44	12.58	1.95	0.30	0.09	0.1894		3.28		0.73	3.10	3.28	1
GUG DB	51.99	1.05	14.79	12.56	0.26	4.74	7.79	2.78	0.56	0.13	0.0307		2.23		0.78	3.01	2.23	1
GUG J-F	46.01	0.80	18.14	11.80	0.26	4.85	12.50	1.98	0.33	0.04	0.2001		3.25		0.75	2.76	3.25	1
SA 93-1	53.50	0.55	15.63	7.06	0.14	2.85	10.99	2.13	0.57	0.03	0.0537		4.00		0.69	6.25	4.00	1
EN113.13D-1B	48.28	1.20	18.36	7.84	0.14	7.82	12.15	3.25	0.01	0.09	0.0755		0.14	93	0.85	0.65	0.15	1
Lesne et al. (2011)											Cl	Sr						
MAS.1.A1	48.61	1.14	17.78	10.94		3.29	9.21	2.62	1.18		0.1150	0.0480	2.58	490	0.68	4.68	2.63	1
MAS.1.A2	48.78	1.12	18.08	10.96		3.52	9.04	2.66	1.18		0.1425	0.0395	2.13	120	0.67	4.05	2.14	1
MAS.1.A3	48.60	1.13	18.51	10.94		3.26	8.99	2.68	1.19		0.1480	0.0370	2.62	610	0.70	4.15	2.68	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
MAS.1.A4	48.93	1.14	18.44	10.92		3.18	8.87	2.65	1.18		0.1330	0.0310	2.54	750	0.72	4.19	2.62	3
MAS.1.A5	49.53	1.15	18.12	10.65		3.43	8.80	2.69	1.16		0.1645	0.0410	2.22	225	0.66	3.86	2.24	3
MAS.1.A6	49.48	1.13	17.91	10.72		3.49	8.79	2.69	1.17		0.1640	0.0374	2.39	345				2
MAS.1.A7	48.70	1.14	18.72	10.95		3.36	8.82	2.70	1.19		0.1260	0.0270	2.03	90	0.75	3.97	2.04	1
MAS.1.A9	50.55	1.19	18.79	10.89		3.40	9.02	2.81	1.21		0.1320	0.0030	1.58	35				2
MAS.1.A10	49.71	1.17	18.68	10.84		3.39	8.91	2.76	1.20		0.1315	0.0165	2.86	1445				2
MAS.1.A10b	50.30	1.16	18.59	10.75		3.34	8.80	2.77	1.20		0.1590	0.0040	2.75	1390				2
MAS.1.B2	48.57	1.16	17.83	11.00		3.10	9.22	2.83	1.24		0.1470	0.0870	2.20	65	0.69	4.41	2.21	1
MAS.1.B3	48.30	1.15	17.96	10.98		3.24	9.30	2.73	1.20		0.1440	0.0835	2.44	450	0.68	4.53	2.49	1
MAS.1.B4	48.70	1.14	18.27	10.71		3.13	9.10	2.82	1.24		0.1220	0.0605	2.55	705	0.82	4.49	2.62	3
MAS.1.B5	49.09	1.14	18.26	10.73		2.85	8.95	2.88	1.27		0.1245	0.0935	2.24	195	0.68	4.23	2.26	3
MAS.1.B6	49.19	1.14	18.51	10.36		3.01	9.17	2.80	1.24		0.1400	0.0950	2.41					2
MAS.1.B7	49.43	1.17	18.06	10.96		3.05	9.07	2.83	1.26		0.1225	0.0505	1.83	75				2
MAS.1.B8	49.75	1.18	19.03	10.95		3.23	9.15	2.91	1.23		0.01510	0.0525	1.73	90				2
MAS.1.B9	50.86	1.19	18.54	10.90		3.31	9.14	2.92	1.26		0.1220	0.0060	1.64	35				2
Si8.1.A1	48.06	0.75	17.47	6.90		6.11	10.29	1.90	1.34		0.1733	0.1733	2.70	515	0.64	6.55	2.75	1
Si8.1.A3	48.44	0.79	17.49	7.08		5.95	10.12	1.93	1.38		0.1595	0.1595	2.86	575	0.69	6.26	2.92	1
Si8.1.A4	48.19	0.76	17.48	6.97		6.08	10.27	1.95	1.36		0.1721	0.1721	3.05	960	0.67	6.34	3.15	1
Si8.1.A5	48.89	0.78	17.56	6.96		6.28	10.33	1.97	1.34		0.1979	0.1719	2.57	300	0.60	5.20	2.60	1
Si8.1.A10	49.85	0.79	17.60	6.98		6.05	10.34	1.96	1.41		0.2141	0.1564	3.17	1540	0.68	4.41	3.32	1
Si8.1.B2	49.36	0.80	17.73	6.94		5.86	10.78	1.88	1.36		0.1537	0.3043	2.40	60	0.66	4.58	2.41	3
Si8.1.B3	48.72	0.79	17.95	6.95		5.88	10.68	1.93	1.34		0.1985	0.3240	3.01	635	0.66	4.97	3.07	3
Si8.1.B4	49.33	0.82	17.69	6.96		5.55	10.45	1.91	1.39		0.1560	0.3140	3.11	920	0.68	5.19	3.20	3
Si8.1.B5	49.23	0.81	17.89	7.00		5.67	10.57	1.89	1.36		0.1570	0.3170	2.65	230	0.63	4.82	2.67	3
Si8.1.B6	49.35	0.78	17.71	6.98		5.59	10.54	1.90	1.37		0.1582	0.3230	2.76	415				2
Si8.1.B7	50.02	0.82	17.99	7.05		5.86	10.70	1.90	1.37		0.1476	0.1607	1.87	60	0.68	3.73	1.88	3
Si8.1.B9	51.92	0.87	18.05	7.26		6.34	10.95	1.98	1.44		0.1485	0.0036	1.03	40				2
Si8.1.B10	49.74	0.82	17.84	6.91		5.92	10.41	1.98	1.38		0.1635	0.3090	3.38	1490				2

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	^a Cr ₂ O ₃	^a NiO	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	^c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
Metekhova et al. (2015)																		
BM3	47.53	0.81	16.02	7.72	0.16	9.16	11.64	2.11	0.16	0.10	0.07	0.10	2.94		0.68	4.14	2.94	1
BM6	46.88	0.86	16.13	6.63	0.16	9.41	10.96	2.15	0.15	0.12	0.06		4.42		0.55	6.16	4.42	1
BM9	45.27	0.79	15.98	7.90	0.14	8.57	11.03	2.49	0.16	0.09	0.04		5.34		0.57	7.16	5.34	1
BM17	45.58	0.75	14.61	8.58	0.20	10.91	10.99	2.28	0.17	0.13	0.03	0.03	6.70		0.43	5.20	6.70	1
BM33	45.37	0.70	13.88	7.30	0.34	13.63	10.30	2.23	0.14	0.08	0.13	0.02	4.46		0.55	5.52	4.46	1
BM34	51.23	0.42	17.64	4.65	0.17	4.83	7.81	2.92	0.26	0.17			7.20		0.36	9.57	7.20	1
BM37*	45.93	0.82	15.85	7.58	0.15	8.35	11.73	2.67	0.16	0.09	0.01	0.02	5.20		0.43	6.16	5.20	1
BM38	46.44	0.79	14.99	8.49	0.17	11.34	11.29	2.15	0.15	0.08	0.05		2.50		0.45	3.54	2.50	1
BM40	46.88	0.89	17.01	8.27	0.15	8.30	11.33	2.37	0.17	0.11	0.02		3.05		0.59	4.12	3.05	1
BM46	45.26	0.68	13.69	7.36	0.15	13.69	10.27	2.23	0.14	0.08	0.13	0.01	4.52		0.53	5.92	4.52	1
RSV49_2	46.78	0.71	14.28	8.88	0.18	14.15	10.78	1.79	0.12	0.09	0.11	0.07	0.60		0.79	1.85	0.60	1
Naumov et al. (2008)																		
											Cl	Sr						
K-35_58	71.76	0.21	13.16	0.94	0.03	0.27	0.83	4.97	3.32	0.00	0.20	0.01	4.75			4.20	4.75	1
K-31_60	71.74	0.30	12.45	1.58	0.06	0.37	1.40	4.25	3.43	0.09	0.24	0.01	5.14			3.91	5.14	1
K-31_61	71.85	0.29	12.36	1.38	0.06	0.26	1.25	4.21	3.15	0.03	0.17	0.00	5.87			4.84	5.87	1
K-31_62	72.09	0.35	12.48	1.57	0.03	0.33	1.41	2.99	3.26	0.01	0.19	0.01	3.12			5.11	3.12	1
K-31_65	72.35	0.27	12.09	1.39	0.10	0.25	1.27	3.86	3.26	0.04	0.16	0.00	4.96			4.81	4.96	1
K-23_67	72.54	0.18	11.93	1.13	0.00	0.21	1.20	3.63	3.05	0.00	0.20	0.02	6.65			5.80	6.65	1
1	72.15	0.24	12.82	1.30	0.04	0.27	1.23	3.89	2.82	0.02	0.14		4.89			4.94	4.89	1
2	72.83	0.11	12.51	0.51	0.06	0.12	0.66	3.32	3.82	0.04	0.11		4.88			5.85	4.88	1
3	73.28	0.12	12.98	0.57	0.07	0.16	0.88	3.60	3.74	0.00	0.10		4.20			4.44	4.20	1
4	74.02	0.09	12.44	0.54	0.13	0.06	0.62	3.72	3.92	0.06	0.11		3.41			4.23	3.41	1
5	74.91	0.31	12.95	1.25	0.15	0.24	1.19	4.03	3.12	0.01	0.15		0.90			1.55	0.90	1
6	75.67	0.11	12.83	0.67	0.11	0.10	0.68	3.64	4.12	0.04	0.10		1.64			1.86	1.64	1
7	70.18	0.24	10.95	1.57	0.00	0.27	1.43	5.81	1.78	0.02	0.28		6.68			7.30	6.68	1
8	72.12	0.19	11.78	1.25	0.15	0.21	1.35	4.79	1.83	0.02	0.26		5.73			5.91	5.73	1
9	74.05	0.16	11.02	1.18	0.08	0.20	1.04	4.46	1.84	0.04	0.26		4.98			5.54	4.98	1
10	77.02	0.16	9.29	0.90	0.04	0.19	0.98	4.10	1.69	0.10	0.19		5.10			5.24	5.10	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	^a Cl	^a F	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	^c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
Naumov (2011)																		
8-1/2	79.12	0.12	9.99	0.74	0.06	0.05	0.31	2.11	4.05	0.00	0.20	1.56	0.11			1.61	0.11	1
8-2/6	73.75	0.17	10.88	0.75	0.09	0.04	0.29	5.08	4.19	0.00	0.25	0.57	2.40			3.86	2.40	1
8-2/7	76.44	0.07	10.85	0.52	0.07	0.04	0.25	4.46	4.21	0.00	0.20	0.11	0.56			2.72	0.56	1
8-4/8	70.64	0.09	14.85	1.57	0.05	0.04	0.56	6.29	6.11	0.00	0.13	0.12	1.26			-0.62	1.26	1
8-4/9	72.82	0.09	12.63	1.56	0.15	0.05	0.50	5.88	4.92	0.02	0.19	0.05	0.20			0.97	0.20	1
8-4/11	78.36	0.11	9.06	0.68	0.06	0.07	0.22	3.44	4.04	0.01	0.20	0.28	0.46			3.39	0.46	1
64-1/14	68.16	0.05	13.66	0.66	0.03	0.03	0.05	4.91	5.73	0.03	0.26	1.57	4.75			4.79	4.75	1
64-1/16	72.29	0.10	10.39	0.71	0.08	0.05	0.24	4.07	3.32	0.00	0.17	1.78	2.33			6.72	2.33	1
19-2/20	74.70	0.12	10.75	0.80	0.11	0.04	0.26	4.46	4.29	0.06	0.23	1.56	2.10			2.53	2.10	1
K-1/21	81.26	0.08	8.73	0.51	0.06	0.06	0.49	3.06	3.04	0.05	0.08	0.02	0.25			2.50	0.25	1
K-4/22	68.56	0.02	13.87	0.15	0.11	0.02	0.38	3.34	5.43	0.00	0.05	0.36	6.40			7.69	6.40	1
K-4/24	72.55	0.04	12.65	0.50	0.12	0.08	0.64	5.27	4.62	0.04	0.10	0.03	0.65			3.30	0.65	1
K-4/27	77.08	0.07	11.48	0.37	0.11	0.03	0.62	5.06	4.08	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.35			0.98	0.35	1
K-5/30	73.92	0.04	10.94	0.50	0.04	0.07	0.72	2.68	4.24	0.02	0.08	0.08	5.94			6.61	5.94	1
K-9/31	74.97	0.11	15.53	0.46	0.00	0.05	0.82	3.03	4.47	0.03	0.07	0.01	0.07			0.40	0.07	1
Nichols et al. (2002) and Shorttle et al. (2015)																		
St																		
12aD1	50.31	1.10	14.08	11.34	0.20	8.04	12.02	1.90	0.05	0.06	0.107		0.21		0.84	0.43	0.21	1
14D3	49.91	1.25	14.18	11.37	0.18	7.68	11.95	2.06	0.16	0.10	0.112		0.32		0.84	0.68	0.32	1
14D4	50.08	1.26	14.17	11.55	0.20	7.72	12.07	2.01	0.15	0.10	0.114		0.30		0.84	0.21	0.30	1
02D6	50.38	1.04	14.53	10.77	0.18	8.38	12.00	1.97	0.06	0.07	0.107		0.20		0.83	0.15	0.20	1
17D1	49.42	0.84	14.86	10.15	0.20	8.66	13.46	1.76	0.04	0.04	0.068		0.15		0.84	0.23	0.15	1
22D1	50.72	1.13	14.04	11.50	0.21	7.67	11.76	2.03	0.07	0.06	0.108		0.20		0.84	0.34	0.20	1
33aD1	50.35	1.00	14.36	10.66	0.18	7.97	11.96	2.06	0.07	0.07	0.107		0.19		0.84	0.87	0.19	1
49D5	50.08	1.13	14.17	11.31	0.17	8.17	11.79	1.99	0.07	0.10	0.115		0.19		0.84	0.53	0.19	1
59D1	50.06	1.15	13.96	11.11	0.17	8.03	11.63	2.03	0.07	0.10	0.120		0.22		0.84	1.19	0.22	1
62D5	49.84	1.04	14.51	11.38	0.20	8.29	11.82	2.04	0.05	0.07	0.112		0.20		0.84	0.27	0.20	1
67D6	50.44	1.19	14.16	11.61	0.20	7.59	11.98	2.13	0.07	0.10	0.122		0.23		0.84	0.03	0.23	1
75D10	50.53	1.10	14.77	11.52	0.20	7.95	12.18	2.14	0.06	0.09	0.124		0.19		0.84	-1.05	0.19	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
80D1	50.58	1.18	13.41	11.62	0.21	7.36	12.18	2.01	0.07	0.08	0.117		0.20		0.84	0.80	0.20	1
85D4	50.87	1.05	13.34	11.61	0.20	7.56	12.25	1.88	0.05	0.07	0.119		0.16		0.84	0.62	0.16	1
90D2	50.74	1.34	13.46	12.63	0.21	7.05	11.70	2.08	0.07	0.08	0.126		0.23		0.84	0.10	0.23	1
92D1	51.29	1.35	13.35	13.20	0.22	6.78	11.51	2.16	0.08	0.09	0.130		0.22		0.84	-0.59	0.22	1
96D1	50.27	1.34	13.66	12.75	0.21	7.19	11.76	2.08	0.07	0.08	0.130		0.22		0.84	0.04	0.22	1
100D1	50.49	1.16	13.67	12.15	0.22	7.41	11.85	2.09	0.06	0.07	0.119		0.18		0.84	0.32	0.18	1
103D4	50.56	0.96	14.20	11.55	0.18	7.93	12.70	1.96	0.03	0.06	0.106		0.13		0.84	-0.61	0.13	1
104D6	50.37	1.41	12.97	14.19	0.22	6.69	11.14	2.16	0.07	0.09	0.125		0.24		0.84	0.13	0.24	1
105D1	50.35	1.12	13.51	12.68	0.19	7.35	12.15	1.98	0.06	0.07	0.111		0.18		0.85	0.04	0.18	1
108D3	50.52	0.89	13.72	11.76	0.18	7.98	12.50	1.82	0.03	0.06	0.102		0.12		0.85	0.08	0.12	1
111D2	50.48	1.26	13.66	12.43	0.21	7.22	11.85	2.10	0.07	0.09	0.125		0.20		0.84	0.10	0.20	1
112D1	50.42	1.27	13.51	12.81	0.21	6.98	11.79	2.15	0.06	0.10	0.135		0.20		0.84	0.14	0.20	1
116D6	50.69	1.11	13.62	11.94	0.21	7.46	12.08	2.08	0.06	0.07	0.119		0.15		0.83	0.16	0.15	1
117D4	50.44	1.27	13.49	12.59	0.22	7.10	11.81	2.18	0.07	0.08	0.133		0.18		0.84	0.19	0.18	1
119D1	50.52	1.14	13.67	12.14	0.21	7.34	12.11	2.14	0.05	0.06	0.122		0.21		0.84	0.09	0.21	1
121D3	50.50	1.05	13.64	11.88	0.21	7.51	12.41	2.01	0.04	0.07	0.125		0.13		0.84	0.16	0.13	1
122D4	50.30	0.92	13.92	11.54	0.20	7.81	12.54	1.95	0.03	0.07	0.117		0.12		0.85	0.23	0.12	1
125D1	50.56	1.14	13.80	12.22	0.22	7.44	12.12	2.05	0.06	0.09	0.113		0.16		0.84	-0.19	0.16	1
126D1	50.41	1.31	13.31	13.09	0.21	7.03	11.69	2.13	0.06	0.09	0.135		0.20		0.83	0.08	0.20	1
129D2	50.34	1.11	13.57	12.45	0.23	7.37	12.10	2.01	0.05	0.06	0.121		0.19		0.83	0.17	0.19	1
131D1	50.52	1.28	13.24	13.19	0.23	6.90	11.33	2.15	0.06	0.08	0.138		0.15		0.83	0.42	0.15	1
133D3	50.05	1.34	13.47	13.15	0.23	6.97	11.51	2.17	0.07	0.08	0.128		0.16		0.84	0.41	0.16	1
135D1	49.98	1.11	13.70	12.29	0.20	7.47	12.24	2.03	0.05	0.06	0.119		0.16		0.83	0.35	0.16	1
136D2	50.24	1.02	14.00	11.19	0.20	7.97	12.62	1.87	0.06	0.07	0.111		0.15		0.84	0.29	0.15	1
137D2	49.37	1.01	14.47	11.45	0.20	8.49	11.87	1.96	0.06	0.06	0.105		0.20		0.84	0.59	0.20	1
138D2	49.68	1.19	13.63	12.39	0.20	7.45	12.07	2.02	0.05	0.06	0.120		0.18		0.83	0.72	0.18	1
140D6	50.36	1.04	13.72	11.82	0.21	7.71	12.44	1.91	0.06	0.05	0.107		0.17		0.83	0.18	0.17	1
142D2	50.58	1.64	13.19	13.87	0.23	6.46	11.08	2.12	0.14	0.11	0.125		0.35		0.83	0.02	0.35	1
144D2	50.41	1.15	13.75	12.05	0.20	7.50	12.23	2.00	0.07	0.07	0.119		0.17		0.83	0.04	0.17	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
145D1	50.44	1.30	13.42	12.84	0.22	7.11	11.67	1.98	0.09	0.09	0.117		0.25		0.83	0.31	0.25	1
146D1	50.54	1.10	13.59	12.03	0.22	7.54	12.26	1.87	0.07	0.07	0.109		0.19		0.83	0.22	0.19	1
147D5	49.43	1.01	14.24	11.77	0.20	8.72	11.81	1.88	0.07	0.07	0.096		0.19		0.83	0.34	0.19	1
147D6	49.91	1.03	14.29	11.50	0.19	8.73	11.94	1.87	0.07	0.07	0.107		0.19		0.83	-0.08	0.19	1
150D3	50.15	1.52	13.38	13.15	0.22	6.94	11.60	2.04	0.15	0.11	0.120		0.36		0.84	0.20	0.36	1
153D3	48.89	0.98	15.26	10.45	0.17	9.01	12.42	1.89	0.07	0.06	0.086		0.17		0.83	0.40	0.17	1
154D1	50.21	1.32	13.91	12.55	0.21	7.26	11.89	2.00	0.14	0.09	0.108		0.30		0.83	-0.08	0.30	1
155D6	49.83	1.08	14.52	11.36	0.18	8.09	12.21	1.92	0.09	0.07	0.089		0.23		0.83	0.22	0.23	1
157D3	49.63	1.11	14.66	11.20	0.18	8.50	12.15	1.92	0.10	0.07	0.090		0.24		0.83	0.05	0.24	1
158D2	50.36	1.44	13.54	12.75	0.21	6.89	11.46	2.06	0.15	0.13	0.129		0.34		0.83	0.46	0.34	1
160D4	50.33	1.44	13.62	12.79	0.20	6.86	11.45	2.04	0.13	0.13	0.121		0.30		0.84	0.48	0.30	1
162D2	50.41	1.41	13.55	12.77	0.20	6.90	11.45	2.00	0.13	0.13	0.125		0.31		0.84	0.52	0.31	1
164D5	50.50	1.46	13.35	13.02	0.23	6.75	11.42	2.05	0.15	0.13	0.130		0.32		0.84	0.39	0.32	1
169D6	50.51	1.42	13.52	13.10	0.23	6.68	11.41	2.11	0.15	0.12	0.118		0.32		0.84	0.23	0.32	1
173D1	50.81	1.52	13.31	13.25	0.22	6.51	11.29	2.15	0.19	0.11	0.125		0.37		0.84	0.09	0.37	1
175D8	49.34	1.44	13.90	12.36	0.18	7.20	11.46	2.07	0.20	0.15	0.101		0.40		0.84	1.23	0.40	1
177D3	48.79	1.29	14.40	11.31	0.17	7.94	12.20	1.96	0.18	0.12	0.079		0.29		0.84	1.25	0.29	1
179D3	49.46	1.28	14.41	11.38	0.19	7.80	12.27	1.96	0.18	0.11	0.086		0.31		0.84	0.54	0.31	1
182D3	49.82	1.55	13.90	12.72	0.21	7.06	11.31	2.10	0.18	0.15	0.113		0.38		0.84	0.49	0.38	1
185D4	49.21	1.70	13.77	12.77	0.23	7.28	11.90	2.11	0.18	0.15	0.097		0.28		0.83	0.22	0.28	1
98D3	50.69	1.32	13.57	12.74	0.22	7.16	11.75	2.06	0.07	0.07	0.126		0.23		0.84	-0.20	0.23	1
Riker et al. (2015)																		
PSB26	67.36	0.29	14.57	1.76	0.05	0.69	2.42	4.51	1.89	0.11			6.69	63	0.48	6.25	6.70	3
PSB58	64.70	0.30	14.94	3.01	0.06	0.89	2.86	4.52	1.65	0.09			6.63	32	0.66	6.87	6.63	3
PSB62	63.59	0.35	14.68	3.26	0.05	0.73	2.82	4.31	1.63	0.07			8.55	34	0.70	8.40	8.55	3
PSB63	64.21	0.33	14.81	3.26	0.07	0.75	2.91	4.35	1.70	0.10			7.11	1001	0.76	7.41	7.21	3
PSB64	64.39	0.33	14.90	3.20	0.06	0.64	2.88	4.48	1.73	0.11			6.00	1408	0.77	7.19	6.14	3
PSB65	61.05	0.32	14.41	3.22	0.04	0.77	2.78	4.17	1.66	0.09			9.62	63	0.65	11.37	9.63	3
PSB66	62.25	0.33	14.64	3.24	0.06	0.72	2.83	4.41	1.72	0.10			7.93	1700	0.74	9.61	8.10	3

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
PSB67	63.57	0.34	14.94	3.20	0.08	0.52	2.89	4.58	1.77	0.09			2329	0.77	7.95	6.39	3
Smith et al. (2010)																	
Re1_910_1	72.11	0.14	11.62	0.95	0.10	0.20	1.09	3.94	2.94	0.00			799		6.80	4.20	1
Re1_910_2	73.39	0.13	11.34	0.77	0.03	0.12	0.60	3.92	3.26	0.08			442		6.28	3.60	1
Re1_910_3	71.77	0.12	12.14	0.80	0.08	0.14	0.95	3.83	3.23	0.01			366		6.84	3.45	1
Re1_911_p4-miC	71.70	0.13	12.31	1.18	0.00	0.18	0.98	2.53	4.19	0.04					6.64	7.52	1
Re1_911_p5-miB	73.88	0.12	11.96	0.92	0.00	0.16	0.93	3.40	3.07	0.04					5.42	5.81	1
Re2_915_1	73.48	0.13	11.71	0.96	0.01	0.13	0.77	3.62	3.01	0.00			303		6.08	4.04	1
Re2_915_2	73.18	0.13	11.86	0.80	0.03	0.11	0.83	4.07	3.02	0.00			289		5.86	4.77	1
Re2_915_3	73.15	0.13	11.40	0.82	0.04	0.11	0.74	3.80	3.11	0.03			295		6.58	4.53	1
Re2_915_4	72.59	0.14	11.72	0.80	0.01	0.14	0.76	3.78	3.06	0.03			260		6.88	4.35	1
Re2_915_miA	74.26	0.15	11.99	0.95	0.03	0.17	1.09	3.36	2.91	0.00					5.00	5.66	1
Re2_915_miB	73.38	0.13	11.52	0.95	0.05	0.13	0.75	2.46	3.83	0.01					6.68	6.55	1
Re2_915_miC	73.14	0.14	12.03	0.96	0.05	0.12	0.89	3.19	3.01	0.04					6.32	5.07	1
Re2_559-1_2	76.99	0.14	12.36	0.82	0.00	0.14	0.77	3.90	3.91	0.00			596		0.87	1.30	1
Re2_559-1_4	77.25	0.13	12.28	0.87	0.05	0.13	0.77	3.80	3.66	0.07			414		0.89	1.05	1
Re2_559-1_5	76.71	0.12	12.28	0.91	0.05	0.12	0.82	3.94	3.47	0.01			375		1.46	0.74	1
Re3_918_1	72.59	0.13	11.48	0.75	0.10	0.13	0.83	3.59	3.04	0.02			257		7.26	3.76	1
Re3_918_2	73.41	0.13	11.66	0.91	0.13	0.18	0.79	3.86	3.11	0.02			291		5.70	3.83	1
Re3_918_3	72.60	0.12	11.91	1.01	0.04	0.18	1.05	3.66	3.02	0.00			264		6.30	3.76	1
Re3_918_4	73.22	0.11	11.62	0.83	0.05	0.13	0.88	3.73	3.06	0.00			234		6.28	3.92	1
Re3_918_miA	74.62	0.10	11.56	0.80	0.05	0.07	0.64	2.98	4.20	0.02					4.88	5.04	1
Re3_918_miE	75.13	0.10	11.70	0.92	0.02	0.11	0.73	3.62	3.49	0.03					4.04	4.88	1
EQ1_P6-miA	72.65	0.09	12.07	1.07	0.10		0.82		4.21	0.00					8.88	5.90	1
EQ1_P5-miB	72.71	0.12	11.89	0.89	0.05	0.09	0.76	3.29	4.28	0.00					5.83	4.70	1
EQ4_P11-miC	73.57	0.09	11.67	0.92	0.05	0.09	0.62	2.91	4.18	0.00					5.79	3.39	1
EQ4_P11-miD	74.91	0.09	12.01	0.88	0.03	0.09	0.73	3.31	4.25	0.00					3.60	6.20	1
Stamper et al. (2014)																	
10	43.30	1.02	14.00	8.71	0.18	10.53	11.99	2.05	0.56	0.27	Cr ₂ O ₃	NiO	5600	0.51	6.82	4.15	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
12	44.01	1.15	15.19	8.85	0.20	9.60	10.53	2.71	0.79	0.28	0.01	0.04	3.77	3700	0.44	6.09	4.14	1
15	43.61	0.97	13.61	9.14	0.19	10.90	12.36	2.18	0.57	0.22	0.08	0.02	3.63	1500	0.49	5.63	3.78	1
22 or GRN22	44.05	1.00	13.78	9.02	0.21	10.39	12.07	2.25	0.61	0.25	0.03	0.04	2.90	1700	0.33	5.63	3.07	3
23 or GRN23	43.78	0.91	12.62	8.86	0.17	12.32	12.30	1.87	0.53	0.23	0.08	0.04	3.15	1500	0.43	5.73	3.30	3
25 or GRN25	44.33	0.93	12.66	9.00	0.18	12.66	12.36	1.84	0.52	0.20	0.07	0.03	3.42	1800	0.37	4.59	3.60	3
28 or GRN28	44.05	0.91	12.66	8.91	0.18	12.81	12.42	2.00	0.52	0.21	0.06	0.04	3.10	1400	0.30	4.54	3.24	3
30	43.53	0.92	12.89	9.01	0.17	12.55	12.33	2.07	0.55	0.25	0.07	0.04	3.73	1400	0.27	4.89	3.87	1
32 or GRN32	43.12	0.99	13.38	9.44	0.19	12.44	11.21	2.22	0.60	0.22	0.04	0.03	3.50	2000	0.31	5.39	3.70	3
33	43.28	0.89	12.22	8.69	0.17	13.81	12.15	1.93	0.53	0.21	0.12	0.02	3.77	13500	0.49	5.49	5.12	1
35 or GRN35	44.53	0.90	12.54	8.73	0.18	13.19	12.23	1.94	0.54	0.21	0.04	0.05	2.93	300	0.17	4.11	2.96	3
36	42.35	0.87	11.85	8.80	0.17	13.98	11.70	1.43	0.60	0.24	0.15	0.07	4.32	3800	0.14	6.95	4.70	1
38	43.60	0.87	12.14	8.97	0.18	14.41	11.98	2.00	0.52	0.22	0.14	0.06	2.89	1900	0.19	4.10	3.08	1
41	44.11	0.97	13.74	8.82	0.20	10.30	13.40	2.11	0.58	0.27	0.02	0.00	3.70	1400	0.29	4.78	3.84	1
AN-1 or GRNAN1	45.31	0.94	12.94	9.57	0.19	13.08	13.22	2.24	0.57	0.24	0.06	0.05	0.28	400	0.32	0.87	0.32	3
AN-2	45.38	0.92	12.55	8.93	0.20	15.07	12.72	2.13	0.57	0.24	0.14	0.03	0.32	500	0.39	0.51	0.37	1
AN-3	45.26	0.96	12.41	9.51	0.18	13.82	12.85	2.18	0.58	0.24	0.10	0.04	0.38	600	0.31	1.14	0.44	1
D-7	45.78	0.94	12.64	9.47	0.18	13.55	13.11	2.20	0.57	0.22	0.05	0.04	0.07		0.42	0.64	0.07	1
R-1 or GRNR1	45.11	0.95	12.62	8.91	0.20	12.35	13.11	1.89	0.51	0.22	0.12	0.02	2.78	2100	0.56	3.55	2.99	3
R-2 or GRNR2	44.30	1.08	13.72	9.58	0.20	10.00	12.51	2.30	0.60	0.27	0.04	0.04	3.26	3100	0.50	4.83	3.57	3
R-5	44.72	0.95	12.35	9.34	0.19	12.15	13.19	2.14	0.51	0.24	0.08	0.06	2.56	2200	0.37	3.42	2.78	1
R-6 or GRN6	44.43	0.92	11.65	9.17	0.20	13.83	12.55	1.95	0.49	0.24	0.14	0.05	2.90	2300	0.49	3.86	3.13	3
RD-1	46.25	0.92	13.25	8.93	0.24	12.45	13.25	2.31	0.61	0.27	0.09	0.03	0.03		0.75	1.15	0.03	1
W-1	43.74	1.02	14.20	8.82	0.17	9.06	13.13	2.35	0.65	0.28	0.03	0.02	4.99	2100	0.47	6.01	5.20	1
W-3	43.43	0.90	12.28	9.10	0.20	13.00	12.70	2.08	0.55	0.22	0.05	0.08	3.07		0.31	4.71	3.07	1
Webster and Duffield (1991)																		
											Cl	F						
IDC.1	73.20	0.01	14.79	0.62	0.04		0.16	3.54	5.67		0.26	0.61	1.10			1.03	1.10	1
IDC.2	72.65	0.06	15.09	0.10	0.03		0.49	4.03	6.18		0.26	0.11	0.40			0.99	0.40	1
IDC.3	76.54	0.11	13.02	0.16	0.02		0.40	3.43	5.39		0.31		0.55			0.60	0.55	1
IDC.4	72.73	0.07	13.80	0.26	0.07	0.02	0.41	3.97	6.32		0.20	0.12	1.90			2.00	1.90	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
IDC_5	73.11	0.15	14.08	0.31	0.05	0.03	0.46	3.93	5.30		0.29	0.15	1.00			2.11	1.00	1
IDC_6	73.81	0.18	13.88	0.35	0.03	0.02	0.40	3.90	5.24		0.26	0.03	0.90			1.86	0.90	1
IDC_7	73.87	0.19	14.09	0.14	0.06		0.30	4.21	6.29		0.26	0.03	0.60			0.54	0.60	1
IDC_8	72.96	0.12	14.02	0.13	0.03	0.01	0.46	3.97	6.33		0.36	0.12	1.60			1.48	1.60	1
IDC_9	74.73	0.09	13.31	0.07	0.08		0.52	3.74	5.93		0.33	0.34	0.85			0.85	0.85	1
IDC_10	72.81	0.10	14.22	0.46	0.05	0.01	0.50	3.87	6.45		0.34	0.18	1.00			0.96	1.00	1
IDC_11	72.92	0.12	14.64	0.18	0.12	0.02	0.52	3.76	6.25		0.36		1.10			1.09	1.10	1
IDC_12	73.57	0.13	14.05	0.28	0.08		0.44	3.97	6.48		0.34	0.04	0.60			0.59	0.60	1
CBT_20	74.16	0.14	13.95	1.22	0.06		0.22	3.84	5.34		0.22	0.06	0.80			0.65	0.80	1
CBT_21	72.77	0.11	13.97	0.96	0.06		0.26	3.79	5.52		0.28	0.03	2.30			2.14	2.30	1
CBT_22	74.26	0.13	13.90	1.04	0.10		0.25	3.79	5.48		0.23	0.17	0.55			0.53	0.55	1
CBT_23	72.79	0.11	13.72	0.91	0.09	0.04	0.23	4.15	5.80		0.30	0.10	2.70			1.66	2.70	1
CBT_24	73.62	0.11	13.72	0.80	0.14	0.03	0.25	4.31	5.83		0.30	0.24	0.60			0.56	0.60	1
CBT_25	73.54	0.10	13.34	0.96	0.09	0.04	0.34	4.56	5.55		0.30	0.14	1.00			0.93	1.00	1
CBT_26	73.49	0.15	14.45	0.76	0.15	0.01	0.32	5.96	5.96		0.34	0.23	0.75			-1.90	0.75	1
Webster et al. (1995)																		
Y2 28Q4 P6	73.00	0.10	12.00	1.30	0.01	0.02	0.55	3.30	4.80		0.09	F	3.50			4.39	3.50	1
U 32IIQ14 Un	72.90	0.05	12.20	0.99	0.03	0.05	0.48	3.60	4.60		0.12	0.30	4.20			4.57	4.20	1
Y 35Q5 P6	72.80	0.06	11.90	1.02	0.05	0.01	0.50	3.80	4.70	0.03	0.13	0.20	4.00			4.69	4.00	1
Y 35Q8 P6	76.60	0.06	11.00	0.88	0.07	0.02	0.51	4.00	4.60	0.02	0.07	0.10	3.80			1.97	3.80	1
O2 36IIQ6 LFC	73.50	0.24	12.00	1.14	0.03	0.13	0.52	2.50	5.70		0.02	0.04	2.80			4.05	2.80	1
Y 47Q4 P6	73.20	0.05	11.50	1.02	0.07	0.00	0.46	3.30	4.80		0.21	0.36	4.50			4.92	4.50	1
Y 47Q6 P6	74.00	0.04	11.70	1.16	0.03	0.03	0.50	3.30	4.80		0.12	0.18	3.10			4.01	3.10	1
Y 88Q3 LA	75.10	0.08	11.90	1.06	0.03	0.01	0.48	3.50	4.80		0.13	0.10	3.80			2.69	3.80	1
Y 88Q4 LA	74.90	0.08	11.80	0.91	0.03	0.04	0.41	3.40	4.80		0.14	0.05	4.50			3.34	4.50	1
Y 89Q6 LB	70.70	0.04	11.40	1.02	0.05	0.01	0.43	4.20	4.40	0.00	0.24	0.58	2.30			6.82	2.30	1
Y 89Q9 LB	70.50	0.05	11.60	1.03	0.04	0.02	0.44	5.10	4.30		0.25	0.66	3.20			5.90	3.20	1
Y 90IIQ9 LK	71.40	0.11	11.60	1.15	0.00	0.06	0.45	3.40	4.50	0.04	0.13	0.52	2.40			6.51	2.40	1
Y2 92Q5 LB	72.30	0.04	12.00	0.98	0.05	0.01	0.45	3.90	4.30		0.24	0.72	3.20			4.90	3.20	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
Y 92Q11 LB	71.50	0.10	11.60	0.93	0.05	0.00	0.37	4.00	4.20		0.24	0.61	3.70			6.30	3.70	1
Y 92Q12 LB	72.10	0.05	12.00	1.01	0.06	0.02	0.43	3.90	4.30		0.23	0.58	3.80			5.21	3.80	1
Y 93Q9 LK	73.10	0.07	11.30	1.01	0.01	0.06	0.42	3.10	4.40	0.00	0.12	0.51	4.00			5.79	4.00	1
O2 106Q17 UB	72.50	0.12	11.90	0.49	0.05	0.04	0.57	3.10	4.50		0.04	0.01	6.30			6.63	6.30	1
O 125Q18 FC	74.20	0.23	12.20	1.09	0.01	0.11	0.57	2.40	5.90		0.02	0.27	2.50			2.88	2.50	1
O 130Q2 K	76.30	0.19	12.30	1.13	0.00	0.10	0.57	2.20	5.80		0.03	0.20	3.10			1.05	3.10	1
O 131Q2 K	73.70	0.11	11.90	1.09	0.07	0.07	0.64	3.00	4.10		0.07	0.02	5.30			5.11	5.30	1
Y 190Q8 LB	72.20	0.05	11.50	0.99	0.05		0.43	3.90	4.50		0.23	0.50	1.60			5.54	1.60	1
Y 190Q9 LB	72.20	0.05	11.50	0.99	0.05		0.43	3.90	4.50		0.23	0.50	4.10			5.54	4.10	1
U 197Q4 Un	74.30	0.05	12.30	1.21	0.04	0.05	0.54	3.40	4.90		0.10	0.16	3.80			2.82	3.80	1
U 197Q5 Un	70.60	0.04	12.30	1.08	0.07	0.02	0.43	4.00	4.30		0.21	0.55	5.20			6.28	5.20	1
U 197Q7 Un	71.30	0.05	12.30	1.05	0.02	0.05	0.45	3.90	4.30		0.14	0.71	4.20			5.61	4.20	1
Y 228Q3 UK	72.70	0.13	11.80	1.38	0.02	0.04	0.49	3.20	5.20		0.08	0.11	2.40			4.70	2.40	1
Y 228Q5 UK	70.80	0.08	12.00	1.10	0.00	0.00	0.48	4.00	4.30		0.16	0.68	6.50			6.28	6.50	1
Webster et al. (1996)																		
1	72.60	0.04	13.10	0.86	0.02	0.00	0.63	4.59	4.72		Cl	F	2.40			2.72	2.40	1
2	73.90	0.14	12.70	0.91	0.01	0.01	0.61	4.41	4.63		0.14	0.48	1.70			2.01	1.70	1
3	73.20	0.05	12.70	0.84	0.02	0.05	0.69	4.22	4.37		0.12	0.45	2.50			3.03	2.50	1
4	72.60	0.05	13.20	0.95	0.01	0.03	0.73	4.39	4.59		0.14	0.60	2.40			2.81	2.40	1
5	72.10	0.05	13.60	0.98	0.02	0.03	0.73	4.79	4.48		0.09	0.44	2.40			2.07	1.50	1
6	72.70	0.05	13.10	0.91	0.00	0.01	0.63	4.64	4.77		0.22	0.82	1.50			2.48	1.70	1
7	72.60	0.05	13.00	0.96	0.03	0.01	0.70	3.82	4.96		0.14	0.47	1.70			3.23	2.70	1
8	73.20	0.04	12.90	0.93	0.03	0.01	0.67	4.05	5.20		0.10	0.43	2.70			2.42	1.90	1
9	73.40	0.04	12.50	0.87	0.02	0.00	0.60	4.78	4.50		0.13	0.32	1.90			2.55	2.50	1
10	72.90	0.02	12.10	0.86	0.03	0.00	0.62	4.49	4.57		0.15	0.49	2.50			3.74	3.60	1
11	72.80	0.03	12.60	0.92	0.02	0.03	0.60	3.51	4.77		0.13	0.44	3.60			4.08	3.50	1
12	72.80	0.04	14.10	1.01	0.03	0.00	0.65	3.62	5.20		0.13	0.41	3.50			1.79	0.90	1
13	73.60	0.04	13.90	0.94	0.04	0.03	0.76	4.28	4.82		0.14	0.51	0.90			0.97	0.60	1
14	72.70	0.02	14.30	0.93	0.05	0.01	0.80	4.58	5.25		0.19	0.33	0.60			0.42	0.20	1

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
15	72.60	0.03	14.90	0.99	0.02	0.00	0.72	4.38	5.12		0.24	0.57	0.40			0.32	0.40	1
16	72.50	0.01	14.90	0.76	0.02	0.00	0.45	4.82	5.30		0.15	0.29	0.80			0.72	0.80	1
17	73.30	0.02	14.40	0.97	0.02	0.00	0.75	4.43	5.01		0.18	0.62	0.30			0.19	0.30	1
18	74.30	0.04	13.80	0.83	0.03	0.00	0.69	4.18	4.94		0.17	0.59	0.40			0.34	0.40	1
19	66.40	0.04	17.90	1.04	0.05	0.03	1.20	5.01	5.83		0.27	1.07	0.80			1.04	0.80	1
21	66.60	0.03	17.80	1.08	0.04	0.04	1.06	4.88	5.81		0.25	1.01	0.30			1.28	0.30	1
22	68.50	0.04	16.80	0.84	0.05	0.01	0.91	4.38	5.82		0.22	0.91	0.30			1.43	0.30	1
29	72.10	0.03	14.40	1.18	0.03	0.02	0.74	4.29	5.42		0.19	0.64	0.30			0.83	0.30	1
30	71.80	0.04	14.60	1.09	0.01	0.00	0.74	4.22	5.34		0.21	1.00	0.20			0.83	0.20	1
31	71.60	0.02	14.70	1.03	0.04	0.04	0.80	4.09	5.26		0.20	1.25	0.30			0.86	0.30	1
Wilke et al. (2002)																		
H 850°C NNO	68.42		12.93	1.26			5.09	1.88					10.70		0.95	10.41	10.70	1
H 850°C C-O-H	68.69		12.66	1.29			5.04	1.88					10.80		0.97	10.44	10.80	1
H 850°C CCO	66.93		12.64	1.27			5.08	2.01					11.10		0.97	12.07	11.10	1
H 950°C HM	68.64		12.75	1.30			5.07	2.00					10.70		0.63	10.19	10.70	1
H 950°C C-O-H	68.67		12.66	1.30			5.04	1.87					11.10		0.95	10.46	11.10	1
Zhang et al. (1997)																		
Ka	76.10	0.01	12.57	0.93		0.01	0.51	3.92	4.79				0.75			1.05	0.75	1
Mn	76.05	0.05	12.51	0.95		0.03	0.54	4.09	4.74				0.81			0.94	0.81	1
6b1	75.33	0.06	12.49	1.10		0.02	0.52	3.94	5.24				1.02			1.17	1.02	1
POB10	75.81	0.13	12.54	0.89		0.03	0.46	3.70	4.89				1.17			1.45	1.17	1
bb3b-11	75.64	0.12	12.42	0.95		0.03	0.53	3.88	4.73				1.75			1.59	1.75	1
bb3b-12	74.39	0.12	12.49	1.12		0.06	0.52	4.00	4.57				2.66			2.61	2.66	1
LV-81-18A-09	75.10	0.12	11.79	0.51		0.01	0.35	3.06	5.12				3.90			3.88	3.90	1
6b-964	73.56	0.08	11.67	0.59		0.04	0.32	3.65	4.15				5.40			5.87	5.40	1
Zhang et al. (2018) and this study ^h																		
AR10 140ox	49.91	0.97	15.67	9.16	0.17	9.49	11.89	2.20	0.06	0.08			0.00		0.18			2
AR11 BezBA	54.98	0.99	17.47	8.31	0.17	5.71	8.52	3.01	0.97	0.16			0.00		0.20			2
AR12 KLA-1-6-22	45.01	3.78	13.02	10.14	0.18	8.67	11.92	3.39	1.63	0.97			0.00		0.14			2

Table B.1: Composition of silicate glasses used in Chapters 2 and 3 *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	a	a	H ₂ O	CO ₂ ^b	c	VBD ^d	MV ^e	f
AR13 LS	54.06	3.02	12.44	12.03	0.30	4.17	9.51	3.09	0.28	0.66			0.00		0.18			2
AR14 PF22	53.60	1.59	19.68	5.76	0.16	2.73	4.65	7.50	3.83	0.47			0.00		0.13			2
AR15 SC1	50.20	2.57	15.20	10.67	0.00	6.38	11.16	2.90	0.35	0.04			0.00		0.18			2
AR16 140ox	50.46	1.00	16.08	7.85	0.18	10.38	12.53	1.94	0.06	0.09			0.00		0.97			2
AR17 BezBA	53.94	0.98	17.37	8.56	0.20	6.22	8.99	2.83	0.88	0.17			0.00		0.90			2
AR18 KLA-1-6-22	44.19	4.18	13.63	8.97	0.23	9.80	13.25	3.06	1.30	0.94			0.00		0.98			2
AR19 LS	51.19	3.77	11.99	14.80	0.34	4.44	9.56	2.70	0.23	0.61			0.00		0.92			2
AR20 PF22	53.82	1.63	19.79	4.67	0.19	3.11	5.52	7.38	3.65	0.49			0.00		0.98			2
AR21 SC1	50.38	3.22	16.06	7.50	0.00	7.64	12.60	2.53	0.25	0.03			0.00		0.95			2
AR35 BezBA	53.87	0.99	17.39	8.76	0.19	5.84	8.66	2.95	0.95	0.17			0.00		0.40			2
AR36 KLA-1-6-22	43.21	3.76	12.84	12.18	0.19	9.07	11.51	3.58	1.62	0.87			0.00		0.42			2
AR37 LS	50.89	3.67	11.75	15.59	0.34	4.16	9.11	2.84	0.27	0.27			0.00		0.40			2
AR38 PF22	52.99	1.57	19.43	5.90	0.17	2.78	4.71	7.57	3.83	0.48			0.00		0.28			2
AR39 SC1	47.93	2.93	14.92	12.86	0.00	6.34	10.77	2.67	0.30	0.03			0.00		0.39			2
AR40 140ox	49.88	1.00	15.74	9.03	0.17	9.57	11.92	2.35	0.10	0.08			0.00		0.91			2
AR41 BezBA	55.86	0.99	17.99	6.10	0.17	5.95	8.90	3.18	0.99	0.14			0.00		0.91			2
AR42 KLA-1-6-22	43.18	3.77	12.96	12.12	0.18	9.07	11.45	3.86	1.63	0.90			0.00		0.90			2
AR43 LS	49.83	3.47	11.57	17.31	0.32	4.01	8.76	3.01	0.27	0.61			0.00		0.88			2
AR44 SC1	48.17	2.86	15.00	13.07	-0.01	6.34	10.79	2.95	0.33	0.02			0.00		0.91			2

Notes: Oxides/elements in wt% (except ^b which is in ppm) labelled along the top, except ^a which is either Cr₂O₃, NiO, Cl, S_T, or F depending on the study; ^c which is Fe²⁺/Fe_T; ^d VBD = volatiles by difference; and ^e MV = measured volatiles. ^f indicates where the samples is used: 1 = individual glass compositions referred to in Table 2.1; 2 = individual glass compositions referred to in Table 3.1; and 3 = individual glass compositions referred to in Tables 2.1 and 3.1. ^g Sample names abbreviated – see Table B.2 for full sample names. ^h Major and minor element chemistry measured as described in Table 4.3.

Table B.2: Abbreviated samples names in Table B.1.

No.	Sample name	No.	Sample name	No.	Sample name
[001]	18/05/1980 KC519PFB 518b-4-1	[013]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-42 418-42-10-6	[025]	27/12/1980 USNM115427-1 427-1-2-2
[002]	18/05/1980 KC519PFB 518b-5-1	[014]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-42 418-42-2-2	[026]	27/12/1980 USNM115427-1 427-1-6-3
[003]	18/05/1980 KC519PFB plz-30-1	[015]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-42 418-42-2-3	[027]	27/12/1980 USNM115427-1 427-4-2-2
[004]	12/06/1980 KC612PF jun-9-1	[016]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-60-2 60-2-10-1	[028]	19/03/1982 USNM115773-18 773-18-1-3
[005]	22/07/1980 KC722U jul-1-1	[017]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-60-2 60-2-2-2	[029]	19/03/1982 USNM115773-18 773-18-3-1
[006]	07/08/1980 KC807B 807b-5-1	[018]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-60-2 60-2-2-4	[030]	19/03/1982 USNM115773-18 773-18-4-1
[007]	07/08/1980 KC807B 807b-6-1	[019]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-60-2 60-2-3-gm	[031]	11/09/1984 SH184 sh184-3-1
[008]	07/08/1980 KC807B 807b-8-2	[020]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-60-2 60-2-3-gm2	[032]	11/09/1984 SH184 sh184-3-2
[009]	07/08/1980 KC807B 807b-8-3	[021]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-60-2 60-2-6-1	[033]	11/09/1984 SH184 sh184-5-1
[010]	07/08/1980 KC807B 807b-9-1 (tube)	[022]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-60-2 60-2-6-2	[034]	11/09/1984 SH184 sh184-6-1
[011]	07/08/1980 KC807B 807b-9-3	[023]	16/10/1980 USNM115418-60-2 60-2-8-1		
[012]	07/08/1980 KC807B 807b-9-4	[024]	27/12/1980 USNM115427-1 427-1-2-1		

Appendix C

Chapter 2 data: Effects of sub-surface charging on VBD using EPMA

Table C.1: Intensity (I) of X-rays from St8.1.B composition from Win X-ray calculations.

Table C.1: Intensity (I) of X-rays from St8.1.B composition from Win X-ray calculations.

Line	Z	H ₂ O (wt%)		F_{\max} (V·nm ⁻¹)																			
		Energy (eV)	I	0				5				10				15				20			
				$I'_{0,10}$	$I'_{0,10}$	$I'_{0,05}$	$I'_{0,05}$	$I'_{0,10}$	$I'_{0,10}$	$I'_{0,05}$	$I'_{0,05}$	$I'_{0,10}$	$I'_{0,10}$	$I'_{0,05}$	$I'_{0,05}$	$I'_{0,15}$	$I'_{0,15}$	$I'_{0,20}$	$I'_{0,20}$				
OK α_1	8	523	41.93	42.73	43.96	44.00	44.04	41.98	42.76	44.00	42.05	42.85	44.09	42.03	42.81	44.10							
NaK α_1	11	1041.0	742.4	662.7	589.0	741.6	661.7	588.4	741.9	662.3	588.6	741.1	661.5	588.0	740.4	660.4	587.6						
NaK α_2	11	1041.0	372.8	332.7	295.7	372.3	332.2	295.4	372.5	332.5	295.5	372.1	332.1	295.2	371.7	331.6	295.0						
MgK α_1	12	1254	4671	4272	3907	4647	4246	3886	4659	4260	3896	4633	4236	3872	4623	4221	3863						
MgK α_2	12	1254	2348	2147	1964	2336	2134	1953	2342	2141	1958	2328	2129	1946	2323	2121	1941						
AlK α_1	13	1487	19910	18640	17380	19740	18450	17220	19830	18540	17300	19640	18370	17120	19570	18270	17050						
AlK α_2	13	1486	9994	9355	8724	9909	9259	8643	9954	9308	8681	9858	9220	8591	9826	9171	8556						
AlK β_1	13	1553	332.7	313.3	293.6	329.5	309.7	290.5	331.2	311.6	292.0	327.6	308.2	288.6	326.5	306.4	287.3						
SiK α_1	14	1740	59640	56670	53680	59050	55970	53070	59370	56320	53360	58690	55680	52680	58460	55330	52420						
SiK α_2	14	1739	29990	28490	26990	29690	28140	26680	29850	28320	26830	29510	28000	26490	29400	27820	26360						
SiK β_1	14	1832	2452	2343	2229	2424	2310	2201	2439	2327	2214	2408	2297	2183	2398	2281	2171						
KK α_1	19	3313	2863	2806	2728	2809	2740	2667	2837	2772	2695	2779	2712	2631	2758	2681	2604						
KK α_2	19	3310	1449	1419	1380	1421	1387	1349	1436	1402	1364	1406	1372	1331	1395	1357	1318						
KK β_1	19	3589	527.3	518.0	504.5	516.9	505.5	492.9	522.3	511.5	498.3	511.1	500.1	486.0	507.0	494.2	480.8						
CaK α_1	20	3691	17880	17520	17070	17530	17090	16660	17710	17300	16850	17330	16900	16420	17190	16700	16240						
CaK α_2	20	3688	9068	8886	8656	8887	8667	8447	8980	8773	8545	8788	8571	8328	8714	8468	8233						
CaK β_1	20	4012	3505	3442	3358	3433	3355	3275	3470	3397	3314	3394	3317	3227	3364	3275	3189						
TiK α_1	22	4510	797	786	756	781	766	736	789	776	745	772	757	725	765	747	716						
TiK α_2	22	4504	405	399	384	397	389	374	401	394	379	393	385	368	389	380	364						
TiK β_1	22	4931	169	167	161	166	163	156	167	165	158	164	161	154	162	159	152						
FeK α_1	26	6403	4519	4297	4095	4436	4195	3979	4477	4244	4036	4396	4147	3924	4357	4103	3871						
FeK α_2	26	6390	2308	2194	2091	2265	2142	2032	2286	2167	2061	2245	2118	2004	2225	2095	1977						
FeK β_1	26	7057	951.3	904.8	862.5	933.7	883.1	837.9	942.3	893.6	849.9	925.2	873.0	826.2	917.0	863.5	814.9						
FeL α	26	705	37.44	32.39	28.12	37.52	32.43	28.18	37.50	32.41	28.15	37.57	32.49	28.21	37.54	32.44	28.22						
FeL β_1	26	717	2.050	1.787	1.563	2.054	1.789	1.567	2.053	1.788	1.565	2.057	1.792	1.569	2.056	1.790	1.569						

Appendix D – Chapter 3 data: High-resolution EPMA of $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ in silicate glass

D.1. Time-dependent ratio flank method protocol

1. Set analytical conditions: 15 kV accelerating voltage, 10 nA beam current and focussed beam. Focus z.
2. Assign spectrometers: TAPs (e.g., TAP, LTAP, and TAPH) on $\text{FK}\alpha$, PETs on $\text{KK}\alpha$, and LIFs on $\text{FeK}\alpha$.
3. Change conditions: 10 μm beam diameter (may need 50 nA beam current for peaking up on MgF_2).
4. Peak-up spectrometers and set PHA windows: $\text{FK}\alpha$ on MgF_2 , $\text{KK}\alpha$ on sanidine, and $\text{FeK}\alpha$ on basaltic glass.
5. Calculate current $\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ and $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}$ positions using spectrometer positions from $\text{FK}\alpha$ peak positions.
6. New spectrometer set-up: change TAPs to $\text{FeL}\alpha_\text{f}$ and $\text{FeL}\beta_\text{f}$.
7. If using Probe for EPMA software: select MAN backgrounds, collect standards (e.g., on sanidine, basaltic glass, NaCl, and MgO) otherwise software will not let you export the data.
 - (a) If using Probe for EPMA software use time-dependent intensity option: each measurement is 120 s with 24 intervals.
 - (b) Otherwise, each measurement 5 s. Either add 24 measurements on the same point or add a line scan of 24 points where the start and end position are the same.
8. Collect unknowns and standards (e.g., ten analyses per sample).
9. Average data for each sample.
10. Process data
11. Produce calibration curve and calculate $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ for unknowns.

Table D.1: Wavescan data of FeL for glasses in Figure 3.3.

Accelerating voltage		15 kV				30 kV	
L (mm)	AR10	AR14	AR16	AR19	AR20	AR14	AR19
186.35	0.70	0.58	0.64	0.89	0.51	0.71	0.91
186.42	0.71	0.56	0.65	0.94	0.54	0.69	0.96
186.50	0.73	0.58	0.70	0.97	0.55	0.70	0.96
186.57	0.71	0.60	0.72	1.04	0.65	0.75	0.98
186.64	0.81	0.59	0.72	1.05	0.62	0.73	0.99
186.71	0.90	0.67	0.83	1.10	0.62	0.75	1.04
186.78	0.87	0.66	0.81	1.11	0.63	0.75	1.09
186.85	0.92	0.74	0.80	1.20	0.68	0.78	1.12
186.92	0.88	0.75	0.87	1.29	0.66	0.79	1.14
186.99	0.98	0.77	0.90	1.35	0.68	0.83	1.18
187.06	1.07	0.83	0.94	1.43	0.79	0.83	1.23
187.13	1.16	0.89	1.05	1.52	0.78	0.85	1.27
187.20	1.22	0.90	0.99	1.59	0.82	0.92	1.35
187.27	1.28	0.95	1.04	1.66	0.80	0.92	1.42
187.34	1.30	0.97	1.13	1.86	0.84	0.95	1.47
187.41	1.38	0.94	1.29	1.93	0.89	0.94	1.54
187.49	1.43	1.02	1.26	1.97	0.93	0.96	1.60
187.56	1.42	1.07	1.23	2.07	0.96	0.96	1.66
187.63	1.45	1.06	1.36	2.15	0.99	0.97	1.72
187.70	1.50	1.12	1.36	2.29	0.93	0.97	1.72
187.77	1.41	1.07	1.31	2.24	0.94	0.97	1.75
187.84	1.49	1.05	1.34	2.40	0.97	0.98	1.80
187.91	1.45	1.05	1.39	2.33	0.95	0.98	1.79
187.98	1.40	1.08	1.30	2.37	1.00	0.94	1.77
188.05	1.37	0.99	1.31	2.34	0.87	0.95	1.76
188.12	1.33	0.96	1.30	2.25	0.87	0.96	1.69
188.19	1.33	0.97	1.29	2.21	0.83	0.92	1.66
188.26	1.28	0.90	1.21	1.99	0.89	0.90	1.56
188.33	1.17	0.91	1.03	1.89	0.85	0.89	1.53
188.40	1.14	0.84	1.06	1.68	0.77	0.88	1.42
188.48	1.10	0.87	1.06	1.69	0.74	0.84	1.39
188.55	1.02	0.78	0.94	1.56	0.69	0.81	1.28
188.62	0.98	0.79	0.90	1.46	0.74	0.84	1.32
188.69	0.96	0.76	0.93	1.46	0.67	0.81	1.24
188.76	0.98	0.77	0.82	1.46	0.66	0.81	1.26
188.83	0.93	0.71	0.79	1.32	0.60	0.79	1.21
188.90	0.91	0.74	0.85	1.35	0.67	0.77	1.16
188.97	0.86	0.70	0.86	1.27	0.63	0.79	1.17
189.04	0.91	0.73	0.83	1.28	0.65	0.79	1.16
189.11	0.87	0.67	0.84	1.30	0.62	0.80	1.16
189.18	0.88	0.70	0.80	1.32	0.66	0.83	1.19
189.25	0.88	0.71	0.82	1.28	0.66	0.78	1.18
189.32	0.91	0.67	0.80	1.36	0.64	0.83	1.19
189.39	0.93	0.76	0.85	1.36	0.66	0.82	1.24

Table D.1: Wavescan data of FeL for glasses in Figure 3.3 *cont.*

L (mm)	AR10	AR14	AR16	AR19	AR20	AR14	AR19
189.47	0.98	0.74	0.91	1.36	0.67	0.81	1.24
189.54	0.96	0.81	0.96	1.41	0.68	0.86	1.26
189.61	1.00	0.88	0.94	1.51	0.74	0.88	1.25
189.68	1.05	0.87	1.02	1.52	0.76	0.93	1.32
189.75	1.05	0.87	1.07	1.59	0.82	0.93	1.38
189.82	1.14	0.93	1.07	1.68	0.84	0.94	1.39
189.89	1.27	1.02	1.14	1.72	0.88	0.96	1.44
189.96	1.35	1.07	1.30	1.85	0.94	0.99	1.51
190.03	1.53	1.17	1.31	2.00	1.06	1.03	1.58
190.10	1.63	1.22	1.36	2.08	1.07	1.12	1.64
190.17	1.65	1.36	1.43	2.09	1.15	1.19	1.68
190.24	1.85	1.49	1.55	2.22	1.21	1.23	1.78
190.31	2.10	1.57	1.59	2.35	1.27	1.32	1.85
190.38	2.18	1.73	1.71	2.55	1.36	1.41	1.90
190.46	2.31	1.80	1.86	2.53	1.46	1.46	1.98
190.53	2.51	1.86	1.81	2.70	1.44	1.51	2.02
190.60	2.66	1.92	1.90	2.93	1.60	1.50	2.12
190.67	2.72	2.00	2.02	3.06	1.62	1.53	2.22
190.74	2.73	2.03	2.10	3.21	1.67	1.51	2.31
190.81	2.77	2.03	2.01	3.42	1.66	1.56	2.39
190.88	2.76	1.89	2.13	3.43	1.68	1.54	2.46
190.95	2.67	1.91	2.15	3.50	1.63	1.54	2.49
191.02	2.67	1.87	2.22	3.63	1.54	1.48	2.55
191.09	2.58	1.85	2.13	3.50	1.50	1.43	2.50
191.16	2.41	1.72	2.09	3.38	1.52	1.39	2.54
191.23	2.32	1.61	1.94	3.29	1.50	1.33	2.47
191.30	2.20	1.54	1.81	3.24	1.30	1.26	2.34
191.37	1.94	1.41	1.76	3.02	1.22	1.23	2.25
191.44	1.88	1.33	1.63	2.84	1.20	1.18	2.13
191.52	1.78	1.25	1.50	2.67	1.15	1.14	1.99
191.59	1.67	1.16	1.39	2.49	1.02	1.05	1.87
191.66	1.56	1.16	1.29	2.28	0.95	1.05	1.80
191.73	1.48	1.09	1.15	2.03	0.93	1.01	1.63
191.80	1.38	0.94	1.06	1.81	0.80	0.98	1.49
191.87	1.28	0.99	0.97	1.65	0.80	0.96	1.45
191.94	1.12	0.89	0.92	1.45	0.74	0.92	1.39
192.01	1.19	0.86	0.83	1.45	0.73	0.88	1.26
192.08	1.10	0.77	0.75	1.31	0.68	0.90	1.23
192.15	0.99	0.74	0.81	1.18	0.63	0.84	1.17
192.22	0.94	0.73	0.69	1.11	0.70	0.86	1.13
192.29	0.94	0.68	0.69	1.14	0.62	0.84	1.10
192.36	0.87	0.66	0.66	0.99	0.54	0.79	1.06
192.43	0.80	0.67	0.66	0.95	0.54	0.78	1.04
192.51	0.77	0.64	0.62	0.92	0.50	0.79	1.04
192.58	0.78	0.57	0.57	0.87	0.52	0.81	1.00

Table D.1: Wavescan data of FeL for glasses in Figure 3.3 *cont.*

L (mm)	AR10	AR14	AR16	AR19	AR20	AR14	AR19
192.65	0.70	0.60	0.57	0.80	0.49	0.77	0.99
192.72	0.69	0.56	0.51	0.85	0.44	0.76	0.97
192.79	0.68	0.54	0.57	0.79	0.48	0.73	0.99
192.86	0.65	0.52	0.56	0.84	0.44	0.72	0.96
192.93	0.61	0.48	0.52	0.76	0.47	0.73	0.93
193.00	0.59	0.47	0.50	0.76	0.45	0.72	0.94

Notes: Intensity in CPS·nA⁻¹.

Table D.2: Wavescan data of FeL for VG-2 in Figure 7.1.

Cameca				JEOL			
λ (Å)	LTAP	TAP	TAP	λ (Å)	TAP	TAP	TAPH
17.212	0.90	0.37	0.51	17.064	0.23	0.19	0.39
17.215	0.99	0.44	0.58	17.071	0.22	0.18	0.38
17.219	1.01	0.47	0.56	17.078	0.23	0.20	0.39
17.223	1.00	0.46	0.54	17.085	0.23	0.20	0.40
17.227	1.09	0.52	0.48	17.092	0.23	0.22	0.41
17.231	1.12	0.47	0.62	17.099	0.23	0.22	0.41
17.235	1.09	0.50	0.61	17.105	0.24	0.21	0.42
17.239	1.32	0.54	0.55	17.112	0.25	0.21	0.44
17.242	1.29	0.60	0.68	17.119	0.26	0.21	0.44
17.246	1.21	0.59	0.57	17.126	0.28	0.22	0.44
17.250	1.25	0.54	0.71	17.133	0.28	0.23	0.47
17.254	1.34	0.55	0.62	17.140	0.29	0.24	0.50
17.258	1.30	0.61	0.66	17.147	0.29	0.24	0.50
17.262	1.35	0.66	0.59	17.154	0.29	0.27	0.52
17.265	1.42	0.61	0.55	17.161	0.31	0.26	0.55
17.269	1.30	0.57	0.58	17.168	0.31	0.29	0.55
17.273	1.27	0.55	0.53	17.174	0.33	0.29	0.60
17.277	1.37	0.56	0.47	17.181	0.35	0.29	0.62
17.281	1.35	0.50	0.50	17.188	0.36	0.30	0.68
17.285	1.24	0.55	0.42	17.195	0.38	0.33	0.70
17.289	1.17	0.47	0.51	17.202	0.43	0.34	0.75
17.292	1.16	0.41	0.37	17.209	0.43	0.37	0.81
17.296	1.11	0.42	0.41	17.216	0.47	0.35	0.85
17.300	1.01	0.40	0.41	17.223	0.45	0.40	0.87
17.304	1.01	0.43	0.36	17.230	0.48	0.40	0.93
17.308	0.87	0.42	0.41	17.236	0.52	0.40	0.99
17.312	0.97	0.39	0.36	17.243	0.54	0.41	1.02
17.316	0.95	0.35	0.34	17.250	0.53	0.45	1.05
17.319	0.88	0.32	0.29	17.257	0.56	0.44	1.07
17.323	0.86	0.33	0.35	17.264	0.54	0.48	1.09
17.327	0.86	0.33	0.36	17.271	0.56	0.44	1.10
17.331	0.86	0.31	0.36	17.278	0.55	0.45	1.10
17.335	0.79	0.33	0.33	17.285	0.51	0.42	1.06

Table D.2: Wavescan data of FeL for VG-2 in Figure 7.1 *cont.*

λ (Å)	LTAP	TAP	TAP	λ (Å)	TAP	TAP	TAPH
17.339	0.83	0.34	0.33	17.292	0.51	0.41	1.05
17.343	0.74	0.31	0.27	17.299	0.45	0.42	0.96
17.346	0.75	0.27	0.31	17.305	0.42	0.38	0.95
17.350	0.78	0.27	0.33	17.312	0.43	0.37	0.89
17.354	0.71	0.27	0.30	17.319	0.42	0.33	0.83
17.358	0.77	0.27	0.30	17.326	0.37	0.34	0.80
17.362	0.70	0.28	0.34	17.333	0.38	0.31	0.79
17.366	0.68	0.26	0.34	17.340	0.34	0.30	0.71
17.370	0.72	0.32	0.27	17.347	0.36	0.31	0.72
17.373	0.69	0.30	0.31	17.354	0.34	0.28	0.66
17.377	0.79	0.29	0.31	17.361	0.34	0.29	0.65
17.381	0.71	0.28	0.33	17.368	0.33	0.29	0.61
17.385	0.69	0.30	0.36	17.374	0.33	0.29	0.66
17.389	0.75	0.30	0.29	17.381	0.33	0.29	0.64
17.393	0.67	0.32	0.36	17.388	0.33	0.29	0.63
17.397	0.76	0.30	0.32	17.395	0.35	0.29	0.63
17.400	0.71	0.31	0.32	17.402	0.35	0.30	0.64
17.404	0.70	0.32	0.35	17.409	0.36	0.29	0.63
17.408	0.77	0.29	0.36	17.416	0.35	0.30	0.66
17.412	0.79	0.33	0.39	17.423	0.38	0.33	0.72
17.416	0.78	0.37	0.40	17.430	0.39	0.35	0.73
17.420	0.80	0.32	0.36	17.437	0.39	0.32	0.76
17.423	0.81	0.33	0.45	17.443	0.42	0.36	0.82
17.427	0.76	0.37	0.40	17.450	0.44	0.36	0.82
17.431	0.86	0.37	0.47	17.457	0.45	0.38	0.86
17.435	0.84	0.37	0.40	17.464	0.50	0.41	0.93
17.439	0.90	0.38	0.43	17.471	0.53	0.44	0.99
17.443	0.99	0.39	0.50	17.478	0.53	0.46	1.04
17.447	0.97	0.44	0.55	17.485	0.60	0.47	1.11
17.450	0.97	0.41	0.56	17.492	0.60	0.52	1.14
17.454	1.01	0.46	0.57	17.499	0.63	0.53	1.20
17.458	1.01	0.52	0.56	17.506	0.67	0.55	1.31
17.462	1.13	0.50	0.66	17.512	0.68	0.56	1.37
17.466	1.16	0.55	0.57	17.519	0.76	0.60	1.48
17.470	1.26	0.51	0.63	17.526	0.79	0.64	1.53
17.474	1.24	0.59	0.68	17.533	0.80	0.63	1.58
17.477	1.19	0.58	0.72	17.540	0.83	0.68	1.64
17.481	1.34	0.70	0.78	17.547	0.85	0.68	1.65
17.485	1.38	0.64	0.74	17.554	0.83	0.64	1.72
17.489	1.49	0.67	0.80	17.561	0.82	0.69	1.65
17.493	1.48	0.72	0.86	17.568	0.79	0.65	1.67
17.497	1.49	0.69	0.92	17.575	0.78	0.63	1.62
17.501	1.49	0.73	0.97	17.581	0.74	0.59	1.57
17.504	1.55	0.70	0.85	17.588	0.68	0.56	1.46
17.508	1.69	0.78	0.94	17.595	0.64	0.54	1.38

Table D.2: Wavescan data of FeL for VG-2 in Figure 7.1 *cont.*

λ (Å)	LTAP	TAP	TAP	λ (Å)	TAP	TAP	TAPH
17.512	1.72	0.83	0.95	17.602	0.59	0.51	1.26
17.516	1.74	0.87	1.05	17.609	0.54	0.47	1.22
17.520	1.83	0.87	0.97	17.616	0.47	0.42	1.10
17.524	1.91	0.99	1.02	17.623	0.43	0.38	1.00
17.528	2.03	0.96	0.95	17.630	0.40	0.36	0.90
17.531	1.89	0.92	1.03	17.637	0.39	0.34	0.80
17.535	2.08	0.89	1.02	17.644	0.35	0.33	0.78
17.539	2.03	0.92	1.00	17.650	0.34	0.28	0.71
17.543	2.10	0.98	1.00	17.657	0.32	0.28	0.65
17.547	2.07	0.89	0.92	17.664	0.30	0.26	0.60
17.551	2.19	0.98	0.93	17.671	0.27	0.22	0.60
17.554	2.06	1.00	0.94	17.678	0.28	0.23	0.56
17.558	2.10	0.94	0.89	17.685	0.27	0.24	0.51
17.562	2.24	0.95	0.88	17.692	0.26	0.23	0.50
17.566	2.03	0.93	0.81	17.699	0.25	0.21	0.50
17.570	1.89	0.84	0.74	17.706	0.24	0.21	0.47
17.574	1.88	0.90	0.77	17.713	0.25	0.19	0.48
17.578	1.80	0.73	0.71	17.719	0.24	0.19	0.46
17.581	1.82	0.76	0.66	17.726	0.22	0.19	0.44
17.585	1.76	0.76	0.63	17.733	0.22	0.19	0.44
17.589	1.70	0.69	0.51	17.740	0.21	0.19	0.42
17.593	1.18	0.41	0.23	17.747	0.21	0.19	0.40

Notes: Intensity in CPS·nA⁻¹.

Table D.3: Fits to Equation 3.2.

Sample	#1: 15 kV, 50 nA, 10 μm			#2: 15 kV, 50 nA, 4 μm			#3: 15 kV, 50 nA, 4 μm					
	I_0	s.d.	I_∞	s.d.	I'_0 (s^{-1})	s.d.	I_0	s.d.	I_∞	s.d.	I'_0 (s^{-1})	s.d.
AR10	0.61	0.02	0.68	0.01	0.0019	0.0014	0.69	0.02	0.82	0.03	0.0018	0.0009
AR11	0.65	0.02	0.69	0.01	0.0012	0.0017	0.67	0.02	0.77	0.01	0.0049	0.0028
AR12	0.66	0.02	0.71	0.02	0.0011	0.0011	0.71	0.03	0.84	0.01	0.0060	0.0032
AR13	0.72	0.02	0.80	0.04	0.0010	0.0009	0.80	0.01	0.78	0.00	0.0001	0.0001
AR14	0.61	0.01	0.58	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.67	0.01	0.70	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
AR15	0.67	0.01	0.75	0.00	0.0007	0.0003	0.74	0.18	0.78	0.00	0.0101	0.0955
AR16	0.82	0.02	0.78	0.00	-0.0003	0.0004	0.86	0.00	0.86	0.00	0.0000	0.0000
AR17	0.85	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.92	0.01	0.83	0.00	-0.0009	0.0003
AR18	0.82	0.01	0.84	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.88	0.02	0.89	0.00	0.0002	0.0007
AR19	0.90	0.02	0.92	0.00	0.0006	0.0014	0.95	0.03	0.98	0.00	0.0010	0.0019
AR20	0.79	0.03	0.61	0.01	-0.0112	0.0044	1.35	3.20	0.67	0.00	-0.4243	3.0461
AR21	0.81	0.01	0.77	0.00	-0.0002	0.0002	0.85	0.01	0.81	0.00	0.0000	0.0002
AR35	0.69	0.03	0.75	0.01	0.0028	0.0032	0.76	0.03	0.82	0.01	0.0032	0.0038
AR36	0.79	0.02	0.82	0.01	0.0019	0.0033	0.81	0.03	0.91	0.01	0.0039	0.0030
AR37	0.84	0.01	0.87	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.90	0.01	0.86	0.00	-0.0002	0.0002
AR38	0.70	0.05	0.62	0.01	-0.0102	0.0142	0.75	0.05	0.66	0.01	-0.0099	0.0113
AR39	0.74	0.02	0.82	0.03	0.0014	0.0012						
AR40	0.86	0.01	0.85	0.00	0.0001	0.0000	0.92	0.02	0.89	0.00	-0.0002	0.0004
AR41	0.81	0.01	0.78	0.00	-0.0002	0.0003	0.81	0.01	0.74	0.00	0.0000	0.0002
AR42	0.92	0.01	0.94	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.96	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.0000	0.0000
AR43	1.08	0.03	1.05	0.01	-0.0021	0.0063	1.09	0.03	1.07	0.01	-0.0009	0.0042
AR44	0.88	0.03	0.94	0.00	0.0061	0.0087	0.95	0.01	0.99	0.00	0.0002	0.0002
22	0.68	0.02	0.72	0.01	0.0012	0.0015						
23	0.74	0.01	0.70	0.00	-0.0002	0.0002						
25	0.73	0.01	0.71	0.00	-0.0003	0.0005						
28	0.73	0.01	0.70	0.00	0.0000	0.0001						
32	0.74	0.01	0.67	0.00	-0.0002	0.0002						
35	0.63	0.03	0.69	0.01	0.0031	0.0037						
	0.61	0.02	0.72	0.01	0.0038	0.0022	0.69	0.01	0.65	0.00	0.0001	0.0002
	0.69	0.01	0.65	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.69	0.01	0.65	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
	0.58	0.04	0.75	0.00	0.0212	0.0115	0.58	0.04	0.75	0.00	0.0212	0.0115
	0.60	0.01	0.65	0.00	0.0001	0.0002	0.60	0.01	0.65	0.00	0.0001	0.0002
	0.78	0.01	0.74	0.00	-0.0002	0.0002	0.78	0.01	0.74	0.00	-0.0002	0.0002
	0.85	0.02	0.79	0.01	-0.0017	0.0019	0.85	0.02	0.79	0.01	-0.0017	0.0019
	0.83	0.01	0.77	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.83	0.01	0.77	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
	0.95	0.01	0.89	0.00	-0.0003	0.0002	0.95	0.01	0.89	0.00	-0.0003	0.0002
	0.67	0.04	0.61	0.01	-0.0045	0.0073	0.67	0.04	0.61	0.01	-0.0045	0.0073
	0.81	0.01	0.77	0.00	-0.0003	0.0003	0.81	0.01	0.77	0.00	-0.0003	0.0003
	0.74	0.01	0.76	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001	0.74	0.01	0.76	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001
	0.79	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.0004	0.0001	0.79	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.0004	0.0001
	0.80	0.01	0.82	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.80	0.01	0.82	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
	0.62	0.01	0.62	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.62	0.01	0.62	0.00	0.0000	0.0000
	0.77	0.01	0.88	0.00	0.0018	0.0006	0.77	0.01	0.88	0.00	0.0018	0.0006
	0.86	0.07	0.75	0.01	-0.0209	0.0282	0.86	0.07	0.75	0.01	-0.0209	0.0282
	0.80	0.02	0.71	0.04	-0.0013	0.0010	0.80	0.02	0.71	0.04	-0.0013	0.0010
	0.88	0.01	0.91	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.88	0.01	0.91	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
	1.00	0.01	0.99	0.00	-0.0001	0.0004	1.00	0.01	0.99	0.00	-0.0001	0.0004
	0.89	0.01	0.89	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.89	0.01	0.89	0.00	0.0000	0.0000
	0.77	0.02	0.62	0.02	-0.0030	0.0012	0.77	0.02	0.62	0.02	-0.0030	0.0012
	0.75	0.02	0.63	0.02	-0.0026	0.0011	0.75	0.02	0.63	0.02	-0.0026	0.0011
	0.72	0.01	0.67	0.02	-0.0010	0.0009	0.72	0.01	0.67	0.02	-0.0010	0.0009
	0.74	0.01	0.60	0.03	-0.0019	0.0007	0.74	0.01	0.60	0.03	-0.0019	0.0007
	0.75	0.02	0.52	0.14	-0.0015	0.0007	0.75	0.02	0.52	0.14	-0.0015	0.0007
	0.69	0.01	0.37	1.28	-0.0007	0.0005	0.69	0.01	0.37	1.28	-0.0007	0.0005

Table D.3: Fits to Equation 3.2 *cont.*

Sample	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>
AN1	0.67	0.01	0.73	0.00	0.0008	0.0004							0.69	0.02	0.77	0.01	0.0018	0.0011
R1	0.77	0.01	0.75	0.00	-0.0002	0.0003							0.78	0.01	0.58	0.11	-0.0015	0.0006
R2	0.71	0.01	0.75	0.00	0.0000	0.0001							0.69	0.01	0.57	0.15	-0.0007	0.0005
R6	0.82	0.02	0.80	0.01	-0.0008	0.0021							0.79	0.01	0.59	0.03	-0.0023	0.0005
ETNA01	0.78	0.03	0.74	0.00	-0.0020	0.0036												
ETNA02	0.81	0.02	0.71	0.09	-0.0009	0.0007	0.84	0.01	0.69	0.01	-0.0040	0.0011						
ETNA03	0.66	0.19	0.74	0.01	0.0244	0.1087	0.83	0.02	0.73	0.03	-0.0015	0.0009						
ETNA04	0.81	0.01	0.48	1.09	-0.0008	0.0005	0.87	0.02	0.69	0.02	-0.0042	0.0014						
ETNA05	0.78	0.02	0.55	0.27	-0.0011	0.0006	0.91	0.02	0.69	0.00	-0.0132	0.0030						
ETNA06	0.80	0.03	0.73	0.01	-0.0044	0.0045	0.83	0.01	0.72	0.04	-0.0014	0.0007						
ETNA07	0.75	0.01	0.76	0.00	-0.0001	0.0000	0.92	0.20	0.77	0.01	-0.0516	0.1315						
ETNA08	0.76	0.01	0.74	0.00	-0.0004	0.0007	0.79	0.01	0.74	0.00	-0.0005	0.0004						
ETNA09	0.80	0.01	0.61	0.06	-0.0019	0.0007	0.82	0.02	0.67	0.01	-0.0041	0.0014						
ETNA10	0.80	0.02	0.56	0.14	-0.0016	0.0006	0.84	0.02	0.69	0.01	-0.0090	0.0031						
ETNA11	0.81	0.01	0.62	0.08	-0.0015	0.0005	0.86	0.04	0.72	0.00	-0.0095	0.0057						
ETNA12	0.81	0.01	0.72	0.00	-0.0010	0.0004												
ETNA13	0.82	0.01	0.62	0.08	-0.0017	0.0006	0.86	0.02	0.70	0.01	-0.0067	0.0024						
ETNA14	0.80	0.01	0.67	0.02	-0.0022	0.0008	0.81	0.02	0.70	0.01	-0.0043	0.0018						
ETNA15	0.82	0.02	0.75	0.03	-0.0011	0.0010	0.84	0.01	0.39	0.84	-0.0012	0.0005						
ETNA16	0.80	0.02	0.66	0.05	-0.0015	0.0008	0.80	0.02	0.68	0.02	-0.0022	0.0014						
ETNA17	0.82	0.01	0.51	0.28	-0.0012	0.0004	0.86	0.03	0.71	0.01	-0.0078	0.0032						
ETNA24	0.83	0.02	0.55	0.20	-0.0015	0.0006	0.88	0.02	0.70	0.01	-0.0073	0.0018						
ETNA25	0.83	0.02	0.74	0.03	-0.0016	0.0010												
ETNA26	0.83	0.02	0.73	0.00	-0.0009	0.0004	0.84	0.01	0.68	0.02	-0.0030	0.0009						
ETNA27	0.83	0.01	0.67	0.11	-0.0012	0.0006	0.86	0.02	0.70	0.01	-0.0058	0.0022						
ETNA28	0.82	0.01	0.56	0.16	-0.0016	0.0006	0.84	0.02	0.70	0.01	-0.0088	0.0032						
ETNA29	0.83	0.02	0.67	0.04	-0.0022	0.0010	0.92	0.03	0.70	0.01	-0.0120	0.0036						
ETNA30	0.75	0.01	0.70	0.05	-0.0005	0.0005	0.80	0.02	0.74	0.05	-0.0007	0.0008						
MAS.1.A4	0.82	0.02	0.80	0.00	-0.0003	0.0009	0.85	0.02	0.63	0.03	-0.0035	0.0010						

Table D.3: Fits to Equation 3.2 *cont.*

Sample	I_0	s.d.	I_∞	s.d.	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	s.d.	I_0	s.d.	I_∞	s.d.	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	s.d.	I_0	s.d.	I_∞	s.d.	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	s.d.
MAS.1.A5	0.85	0.02	0.81	0.00	-0.0011	0.0011	0.83	0.01	0.63	0.02	-0.0029	0.0007	0.83	0.01	0.63	0.02	-0.0029	0.0007
MAS.1.A6	0.83	0.01	0.80	0.00	-0.0006	0.0005	0.80	0.02	0.64	0.03	-0.0027	0.0011	0.80	0.02	0.64	0.03	-0.0027	0.0011
MAS.1.A9	0.84	0.01	0.78	0.00	-0.0004	0.0002	0.85	0.01	0.14	1.33	-0.0015	0.0005	0.85	0.01	0.14	1.33	-0.0015	0.0005
MAS.1.A10	0.82	0.02	0.78	0.00	-0.0007	0.0006	0.86	0.02	0.65	0.01	-0.0058	0.0014	0.86	0.02	0.65	0.01	-0.0058	0.0014
MAS.1.A10b	0.84	0.01	0.76	0.00	-0.0009	0.0004	0.84	0.02	0.66	0.01	-0.0057	0.0017	0.84	0.02	0.66	0.01	-0.0057	0.0017
MAS.1.B4	0.82	0.01	0.76	0.00	-0.0005	0.0003	0.91	0.02	0.70	0.02	-0.0044	0.0013	0.91	0.02	0.70	0.02	-0.0044	0.0013
MAS.1.B5	0.85	0.02	0.79	0.01	-0.0028	0.0023	0.87	0.02	0.67	0.05	-0.0023	0.0009	0.87	0.02	0.67	0.05	-0.0023	0.0009
MAS.1.B6	0.78	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.85	0.02	0.66	0.05	-0.0024	0.0010	0.85	0.02	0.66	0.05	-0.0024	0.0010
MAS.1.B7	0.81	0.01	0.78	0.00	-0.0001	0.0002	0.92	0.02	0.63	0.17	-0.0021	0.0009	0.92	0.02	0.63	0.17	-0.0021	0.0009
MAS.1.B8	0.84	0.02	0.83	0.01	-0.0005	0.0020	0.90	0.02	0.78	0.00	-0.0020	0.0007	0.90	0.02	0.78	0.00	-0.0020	0.0007
MAS.1.B9	0.80	0.06	0.83	0.01	0.0053	0.0213	0.91	0.02	0.76	0.00	-0.0017	0.0005	0.91	0.02	0.76	0.00	-0.0017	0.0005
Si8.1.B2	0.69	0.01	0.68	0.00	-0.0001	0.0004	0.75	0.02	0.63	0.10	-0.0010	0.0007	0.75	0.02	0.63	0.10	-0.0010	0.0007
Si8.1.B3	0.70	0.01	0.65	0.00	-0.0004	0.0003	0.74	0.02	0.67	0.03	-0.0012	0.0012	0.74	0.02	0.67	0.03	-0.0012	0.0012
Si8.1.B4	0.73	0.02	0.66	0.06	-0.0007	0.0008	0.76	0.03	0.68	0.01	-0.0032	0.0025	0.76	0.03	0.68	0.01	-0.0032	0.0025
Si8.1.B5	0.70	0.02	0.63	0.25	-0.0004	0.0006	0.80	0.03	0.69	0.01	-0.0047	0.0030	0.80	0.03	0.69	0.01	-0.0047	0.0030
Si8.1.B6	0.70	0.01	0.65	0.00	-0.0003	0.0002	0.77	0.02	0.67	0.02	-0.0022	0.0014	0.77	0.02	0.67	0.02	-0.0022	0.0014
Si8.1.B7	0.71	0.01	0.72	0.00	0.0001	0.0003	0.78	0.02	0.68	0.04	-0.0015	0.0009	0.78	0.02	0.68	0.04	-0.0015	0.0009
Si8.1.B9	0.72	0.02	0.78	0.01	0.0023	0.0022	0.83	0.01	0.71	0.00	-0.0007	0.0003	0.83	0.01	0.71	0.00	-0.0007	0.0003
Si8.1.B10	0.71	0.01	0.67	0.01	-0.0011	0.0010	0.77	0.02	0.67	0.01	-0.0030	0.0014	0.77	0.02	0.67	0.01	-0.0030	0.0014
AMS1							0.66	0.01	0.67	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.66	0.01	0.67	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
AMS2							0.70	0.01	0.00	0.00	-0.0003	0.0002	0.70	0.01	0.00	0.00	-0.0003	0.0002
AMS4							0.71	0.04	0.69	0.00	-0.0015	0.0045	0.71	0.04	0.69	0.00	-0.0015	0.0045
FSP1							0.62	0.01	0.67	0.00	0.0003	0.0003	0.62	0.01	0.67	0.00	0.0003	0.0003
FSP2							0.64	0.01	0.71	0.00	0.0001	0.0001	0.64	0.01	0.71	0.00	0.0001	0.0001
FSP3							0.66	0.01	0.63	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.66	0.01	0.63	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
FSP4							0.63	0.01	0.68	0.00	0.0002	0.0001	0.63	0.01	0.68	0.00	0.0002	0.0001
FSP5							0.63	0.01	0.67	0.00	0.0003	0.0003	0.63	0.01	0.67	0.00	0.0003	0.0003
FSP6							0.60	0.04	0.65	0.01	0.0039	0.0084	0.60	0.04	0.65	0.01	0.0039	0.0084
FSP7							0.65	0.01	0.60	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.65	0.01	0.60	0.00	0.0000	0.0001

Table D.3: Fits to Equation 3.2 *cont.*

Sample	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>
FSP8							0.63	0.01	0.68	0.00	0.0001	0.0001	0.63	0.01	0.68	0.00	0.0001	0.0001
FSP9							0.74	0.08	0.64	0.00	-0.0251	0.0407	0.74	0.08	0.64	0.00	-0.0251	0.0407
PSG1							0.73	0.06	0.66	0.00	-0.0142	0.0273	0.73	0.06	0.66	0.00	-0.0142	0.0273
PSG2							0.66	0.01	0.64	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.66	0.01	0.64	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
PSG3							0.69	0.06	0.65	0.00	-0.0069	0.0216	0.69	0.06	0.65	0.00	-0.0069	0.0216
PSG6							0.63	0.05	0.66	0.00	0.0056	0.0214	0.63	0.05	0.66	0.00	0.0056	0.0214
PSB26	0.77	0.02	0.72	0.00	-0.0001	0.0002	0.74	0.02	0.68	0.27	-0.0004	0.0009	0.74	0.02	0.68	0.27	-0.0004	0.0009
PSB27	0.68	1.34	0.75	0.00	0.0335	1.1644	0.72	0.01	0.73	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001	0.72	0.01	0.73	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001
PSB58	0.69	0.02	0.63	0.37	-0.0002	0.0006												
PSB62	0.66	0.01	0.68	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.74	0.03	0.68	0.01	-0.0027	0.0028	0.74	0.03	0.68	0.01	-0.0027	0.0028
PSB63	0.68	0.02	0.61	0.00	-0.0004	0.0003	0.73	0.02	0.66	0.00	-0.0009	0.0006	0.73	0.02	0.66	0.00	-0.0009	0.0006
PSB64	0.65	0.01	0.63	0.00	0.0000	0.0002	0.70	0.01	0.71	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.70	0.01	0.71	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
PSB65	0.68	0.02	0.38	6.95	-0.0003	0.0007	0.76	0.03	0.68	0.01	-0.0046	0.0039	0.76	0.03	0.68	0.01	-0.0046	0.0039
PSB66	0.68	0.01	0.63	0.00	-0.0003	0.0003	0.73	0.10	0.70	0.00	-0.0045	0.0374	0.73	0.10	0.70	0.00	-0.0045	0.0374
PSB67	0.69	0.01	0.64	0.00	-0.0003	0.0003	0.71	0.02	0.65	0.00	-0.0002	0.0003	0.71	0.02	0.65	0.00	-0.0002	0.0003
AIL_35	0.86	0.03	0.83	0.00	-0.0015	0.0030	0.89	0.02	0.85	0.13	-0.0003	0.0008	0.89	0.02	0.85	0.13	-0.0003	0.0008
LW_0	0.83	0.03	0.86	0.01	0.0021	0.0052	0.91	0.03	0.90	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.91	0.03	0.90	0.00	0.0000	0.0000
LW_10							0.83	0.03	0.91	0.01	0.0055	0.0060	0.83	0.03	0.91	0.01	0.0055	0.0060
LW_20	0.85	0.01	0.84	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.90	0.01	0.94	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.90	0.01	0.94	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
VG2	0.89	0.02	0.92	0.01	0.0009	0.0016	0.94	0.01	0.95	0.00	0.0000	0.0002	0.94	0.01	0.95	0.00	0.0000	0.0002
VGA99	1.11	0.65	0.91	0.01	-0.0824	0.4837	0.94	0.01	0.97	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.94	0.01	0.97	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
PU32	0.86	0.01	0.80	0.00	-0.0002	0.0002												
PU359	0.82	0.02	0.84	0.00	0.0004	0.0008	0.86	1.09	0.87	0.00	0.0035	0.9550	0.86	1.09	0.87	0.00	0.0035	0.9550
PU361	0.69	0.02	0.74	0.17	0.0003	0.0007												
PU58	0.66	0.01	0.70	0.00	0.0003	0.0002	0.73	0.03	0.77	0.00	0.0022	0.0038	0.73	0.03	0.77	0.00	0.0022	0.0038
	#4: 15 kV, 50 nA, 4 μm										#5: 15 kV, 50 nA, 15 μm							
MAS.1.A4							0.77	0.01	0.74	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.77	0.01	0.74	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
MAS.1.A5							0.75	0.01	0.74	0.00	-0.0001	0.0002	0.75	0.01	0.74	0.00	-0.0001	0.0002
Si8.1.B2	0.70	0.01	0.39	0.74	-0.0009	0.0005												

Table D.3: Fits to Equation 3.2 *cont.*

Sample	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>
Si8.1.B3	0.73	0.02	0.61	0.01	-0.0036	0.0016												
Si8.1.B4	0.70	0.02	0.59	0.02	-0.0022	0.0010												
Si8.1.B5	0.68	0.02	0.61	0.02	-0.0013	0.0010												
Si8.1.B7	0.74	0.02	0.61	0.05	-0.0019	0.0013												
AMS1	0.69	0.02	0.57	0.06	-0.0014	0.0010	0.61	0.01	0.55	0.00	-0.0004	0.0003	0.61	0.01	0.55	0.00	-0.0004	0.0003
AMS2	0.65	0.01	0.62	0.00	-0.0003	0.0003	0.62	0.01	0.60	0.00	-0.0002	0.0004	0.62	0.01	0.60	0.00	-0.0002	0.0004
AMS4	0.70	0.03	0.64	0.01	-0.0026	0.0026	0.62	0.01	0.64	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001	0.62	0.01	0.64	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001
FSP1	0.62	0.01	0.65	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.55	0.01	0.61	0.09	0.0004	0.0006	0.55	0.01	0.61	0.09	0.0004	0.0006
FSP2	0.60	0.01	0.75	3.43	0.0002	0.0004	0.57	0.01	0.55	0.00	0.0001	0.0000	0.57	0.01	0.55	0.00	0.0001	0.0000
FSP3	0.62	0.01	0.61	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.58	0.01	0.61	0.00	0.0001	0.0001	0.58	0.01	0.61	0.00	0.0001	0.0001
FSP4	0.55	0.06	0.62	0.00	0.0139	0.0258	0.58	0.01	0.60	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.58	0.01	0.60	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
FSP5	0.61	0.01	0.65	0.00	0.0001	0.0001	0.56	0.01	0.61	0.00	0.0005	0.0003	0.56	0.01	0.61	0.00	0.0005	0.0003
FSP6	0.60	0.02	0.63	0.00	0.0005	0.0008	0.58	0.01	0.62	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.58	0.01	0.62	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
FSP7	0.61	0.01	0.66	0.00	0.0002	0.0002	0.59	0.01	0.59	0.00	0.0000	0.0003	0.59	0.01	0.59	0.00	0.0000	0.0003
FSP8	0.62	0.01	0.62	0.00	0.0000	0.0002	0.58	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.58	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.0000	0.0000
FSP9	0.62	0.01	0.63	0.00	-0.0001	0.0000	0.69	0.15	0.60	0.00	-0.0235		0.69	0.15	0.60	0.00	-0.0235	
PSG1	0.63	0.01	0.62	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.64	0.02	0.57	0.01	-0.0033	0.0025	0.64	0.02	0.57	0.01	-0.0033	0.0025
PSG2	0.64	0.01	0.60	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001	0.63	0.02	0.58	0.00	-0.0024	0.0023	0.63	0.02	0.58	0.00	-0.0024	0.0023
PSG3	0.80	0.23	0.62	0.00	-0.0728	0.1804	0.60	0.01	0.59	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.60	0.01	0.59	0.00	0.0000	0.0000
PSG6	0.67	0.03	0.62	0.00	-0.0054	0.0088	0.62	0.02	0.57	0.00	-0.0024	0.0024	0.62	0.02	0.57	0.00	-0.0024	0.0024
Y-A	0.63	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.60	0.03	0.56	0.01	-0.0015	0.0024	0.60	0.03	0.56	0.01	-0.0015	0.0024
Y-B	0.63	0.00	0.63	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.57	0.01	0.59	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.57	0.01	0.59	0.00	0.0000	0.0001
Y-E	0.63	0.01	0.66	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.58	0.02	0.55	0.16	-0.0002	0.0007	0.58	0.02	0.55	0.16	-0.0002	0.0007
Y-G	0.63	0.02	0.61	0.00	0.0000	0.0002	0.61	0.01	0.58	0.00	-0.0002	0.0003	0.61	0.01	0.58	0.00	-0.0002	0.0003
Y-H	0.62	0.01	0.64	0.00	0.0001	0.0002	0.58	0.01	0.51	0.00	-0.0004	0.0003	0.58	0.01	0.51	0.00	-0.0004	0.0003
Y-J	0.63	0.01	0.67	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001	0.58	0.01	0.62	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001	0.58	0.01	0.62	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001
Y-L	0.60	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.60	0.02	0.56	0.01	-0.0017	0.0020	0.60	0.02	0.56	0.01	-0.0017	0.0020
PSB58	0.69	0.02	0.61	0.03	-0.0013	0.0012												
PSB62	0.66	0.01	0.52	0.44	-0.0005	0.0004	0.61	0.03	0.59	0.01	-0.0011	0.0032	0.61	0.03	0.59	0.01	-0.0011	0.0032

Table D.3: Fits to Equation 3.2 *cont.*

Sample	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>	I_0	<i>s.d.</i>	I_∞	<i>s.d.</i>	I'_0 (s ⁻¹)	<i>s.d.</i>
PSB63	0.64	0.01	0.61	0.00	-0.0002	0.0002	0.79	0.08	0.58	0.01	-0.0364							
PSB64	0.64	0.00	0.64	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.60	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.0000	0.0000						
PSB65	0.80	0.01	0.70	0.00	-0.0009	0.0004	0.64	0.02	0.57	0.05	-0.0007	0.0007						
PSB66	0.67	0.02	0.63	0.01	-0.0022	0.0026	0.59	0.01	0.60	0.00	0.0000	0.0002						
PSB67	0.78	0.02	0.74	0.00	0.0002	0.0002	0.59	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.0000	0.0000						
AII_-35	0.82	0.01	0.82	0.00	0.0000	0.0001												
LW_0	0.91	0.04	0.83	0.01	-0.0077	0.0080	0.78	0.01	0.75	0.00	0.0000	0.0001						
LW_10	0.80	0.01	0.83	0.00	0.0001	0.0001	0.77	0.01	0.80	0.00	0.0002	0.0002						
LW_-20	0.83	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.0000	0.0000	0.82	0.01	0.78	0.04	-0.0004	0.0007						
VG2	0.86	0.02	0.85	0.00	-0.0001	0.0003	0.80	0.02	0.79	0.02	-0.0002	0.0015						
VGA99	0.92	0.01	0.91	0.00	0.0001	0.0000	0.88	0.01	0.91	0.00	-0.0001	0.0001						
PU32	0.82	0.01	0.84	0.00	0.0000	0.0001	0.74	0.01	0.70	0.00	0.0001	0.0001						
PU359	0.81	0.01	0.82	0.00	0.0000	0.0002	0.66	0.59	0.76	0.00	0.0443							
PU361	0.66	0.02	0.76	0.05	0.0011	0.0009	0.57	0.07	0.64	0.00	0.0173							
PU58	0.64	0.02	0.77	0.09	0.0011	0.0007	0.62	0.01	0.66	0.00	0.0003	0.0003						

Notes: Title refers to session no.: accelerating voltage, beam current, beam diameter. Errors of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) shown in *italics*.

Appendix E – Technique comparison

A variety of bulk and microanalytical techniques were used to measure the H₂O and CO₂ concentrations of the ETNA glasses described in Chapters 4 and 5, which are compared in Figure E.1. H₂O concentrations were measured using the bulk technique of TCEA (Section 5.2.6) and four different microanalytical techniques: SIMS-4f (Section 4.2.2), EPMA (Section 2.5.3), FTIR (Section 4.2.2), and Raman (Section 6.3.2) (Figure E.1a). All techniques produce very similar results, but TCEA, SIMS-4f, and FTIR agree very well, whilst EPMA-VBD slightly overestimates and Raman slightly underestimates. No sub-surface charging correction was applied to the EPMA-VBD measurements as no VBD standards were collected during analysis to produce the calibration, consistent with the findings of Chapter 2. Raman H₂O concentrations are vastly underestimated when nanolites are present, as discussed previously by Di Genova et al. (2017b). Nanolites do not appear to affect the other methods, although no measurements of nanolite-bearing glasses were made using FTIR. EPMA-VBD, as a by difference technique, has the largest errors (~ 0.75 wt%) although these could be improved by using a higher precision technique to estimate Fe²⁺/Fe_T. TCEA, SIMS-4f, and FTIR have the smallest errors (< 0.1 wt%), and SIMS-4f has the highest spatial resolution (~ 15 μ m diameter region).

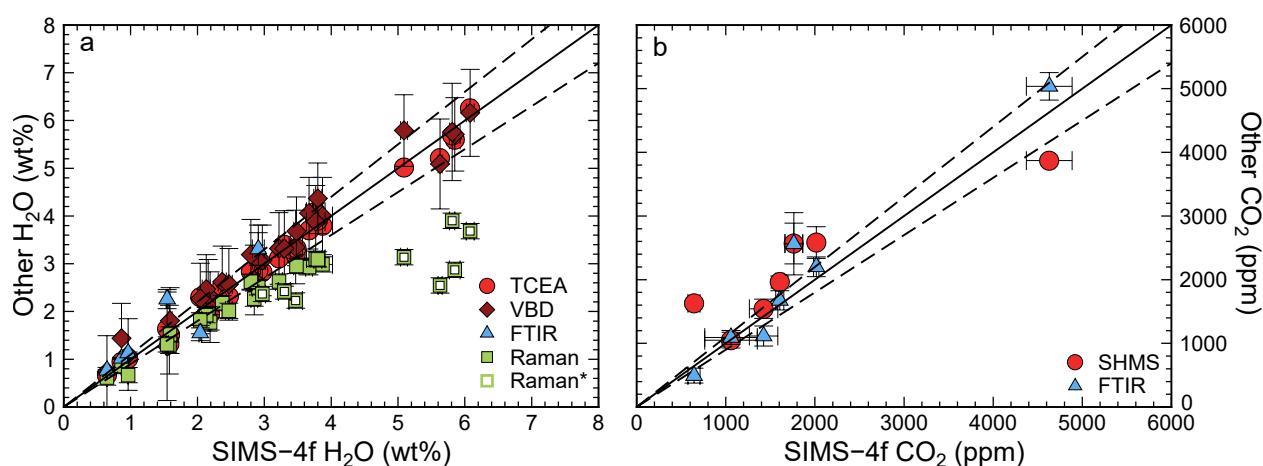


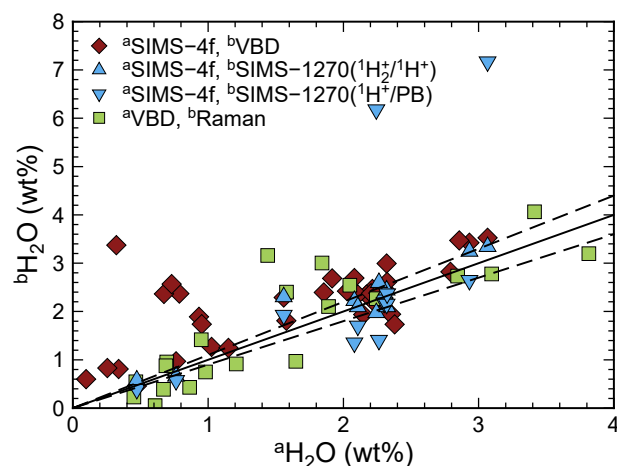
Figure E.1: Comparison of different analytical techniques for measuring glass (a) H₂O concentration (ETNA glasses from Chapters 4 and 5) and (b) CO₂ concentration (ETNA glasses from Chapter 4), which are plotted against SIMS-4f measurements and the symbol indicates the technique. Raman* indicates nanolites present in the glass (open-symbols). The black, solid line indicates the 1-to-1 relationship, whereas the black, dashed lines are 10 % deviations from this.

CO₂ concentrations were measured using the bulk technique of SHMS (Section 4.2.2) and two microanalytical techniques: SIMS-4f (Section 4.2.2) and FTIR (Section 4.2.2) (Figure E.1b). SIMS-4f and FTIR agree well, whilst SHMS tends to overestimate the CO₂ concentration in comparison to SIMS-4f. In some cases the difference between the SIMS-4f measurements and the SHMS or FTIR measurements are > 20 %. This may reflect inhomogeneity in the samples, which would cause discrepancies between the techniques as SHMS is a bulk technique and different areas were analysed for SIMS-4f and FTIR. Alternatively, this may be due to incomplete removal of carbon contamination (e.g., absorbed and surficial) during SHMS. All techniques have similar errors (~ 9 % relative for SHMS, ~ 7 % rel. for SIMS-4f, and ~ 12 % rel. for FTIR), but (as for H₂O) SIMS-4f has the highest spatial resolution.

Figure E.2 shows a comparison of H₂O concentration measured using different microanalytical techniques

(SIMS-4f, SIMS-1270($^1\text{H}_2^+/^1\text{H}^+$), SIMS-1270($^1\text{H}^+/\text{PB}$), EPMA-VBD, and Raman) on the same melt inclusion. Data are compared to SIMS-4f measurements, except Raman measurements which are compared to VBD as melt inclusions were not analysed using both Raman and SIMS-4f. Generally, all techniques agree well, although some EPMA-VBD measurement and SIMS-1270($^1\text{H}^+/\text{PB}$) measurements are much higher than the SIMS-4f measurements.

Figure E.2: Comparison of different analytical techniques for measuring melt inclusion H_2O concentration and the symbols shows the two techniques being compared, where the value for technique ‘a’ is shown on the x-axis and ‘b’ is shown on the y-axis. VBD and both the SIMS-1270 techniques are compared to SIMS-4f, whereas Raman is compared to VBD as no melt inclusions were measured using both SIMS-4f and Raman. The black, solid line indicates the 1-to-1 relationship, whereas the black, dashed lines are 10 % deviations from this.



Appendix F – Nanolite formation in silicate glass

F.1. Raman spectroscopy

Raman spectra were collected as described Section 6.3.2 on all ETNA glasses in Chapters 4 and 5. Degree of nanolitisation (N#) (Equation 6.7, Di Genova et al. 2018) ranged from 0.66 to 3.70 (Table F.1), where N# < 1.5 have no clearly observable magnetite peak in the Raman spectra (Figure F.1).

Table F.1: Degree of nanolitisation (N#) for ETNA glasses measured using Equation 6.7.

Sample	N#	<i>s.d.</i>	Sample	N#	<i>s.d.</i>	Sample	N#	<i>s.d.</i>	Sample	N#	<i>s.d.</i>
ETNA01	0.82	0.06	ETNA09	0.92	0.04	ETNA17	1.05	0.06	ETNA31	0.80	0.04
ETNA02	0.80	0.03	ETNA10	0.94	0.05	ETNA24	0.82	0.06	ETNA32	0.77	0.10
ETNA03	3.70	0.29	ETNA11	1.07	0.10	ETNA25	0.66	0.02	ETNA33	0.72	0.02
ETNA04	0.82	0.04	ETNA12	0.82	0.03	ETNA26	0.70	0.06	ETNA34	0.86	0.07
ETNA05	1.47	0.06	ETNA13	1.35	0.05	ETNA27	0.77	0.05	ETNA35	1.07	0.03
ETNA06	3.59	0.45	ETNA14	2.07	0.08	ETNA28	0.82	0.02	ETNA36	0.85	0.05
ETNA07	3.53	0.34	ETNA15	0.78	0.05	ETNA29	0.78	0.05			
ETNA08	3.22	0.20	ETNA16	2.00	0.09	ETNA30	3.12	0.28			

Notes: Errors of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) shown in *italics*.

F.2. Nanolite formation

Magnetite nanolites were detected in some glasses using Raman spectroscopy, indicated by N# > 1.5 (Figure F.1). All glasses with H₂O > 5 wt% contain magnetite nanolites, indicated by a prominent peak at ~670 cm⁻¹ (N# ≈ 3), and those run at 1 kbar with H₂O ≥ 3 wt% have a smaller peak at ~670 cm⁻¹ (N# ≈ 2), indicating fewer magnetite nanolites (Di Genova et al., 2018) (Figure F.1). EPMA can cause the precipitation of Fe-bearing nanolites during analysis (Section 3.5), but areas selected for Raman spectroscopy had not been analysed previously using EPMA.

Magnetite nanolites can form as the glass quenches, if there is sufficient Fe in the glass (Di Genova et al., 2017a). The temperature decrease on the quench oxidises the melt as *f*O₂ depends on temperature (e.g., Kress and Carmichael, 1991) (Figure 1.3), which can cause precipitation of magnetite nanolites if they form before the melt passes through the glass transition temperature (Di Genova et al., 2017a). All glasses had the same quench rate (~150 °C·s⁻¹; Berndt et al. 2002), therefore this cannot be the cause of the differences in the formation of nanolites. Low melt viscosity facilitates nanolite formation on the quench, as Fe can diffuse faster to form the nanolites, which is consistent with high H₂O glasses containing nanolites as H₂O is a strong control on melt viscosity (e.g., Giordano et al., 2008) (Figure F.2a). These glasses also have the lowest Fe²⁺/Fe_T (~0.5–0.7), and oxidised Fe promotes nanolite formation (Figure F.2b) (Di Genova et al., 2017a). The most hydrous 1 kbar experiments also contain magnetite nanolites, but contain <5 wt% H₂O and are fairly oxidised (Fe²⁺/Fe_T ≈ 0.7), although fewer nanolites than are present in the high H₂O glasses (Figure F.2). On the other hand, there are more oxidised glasses with higher H₂O concentrations that do not contain nanolites (Figure F.2). Further work is needed to understand the controls on the formation of quench nanolites, but it may be that pressure or fluid composition is also important for nanolite formation.

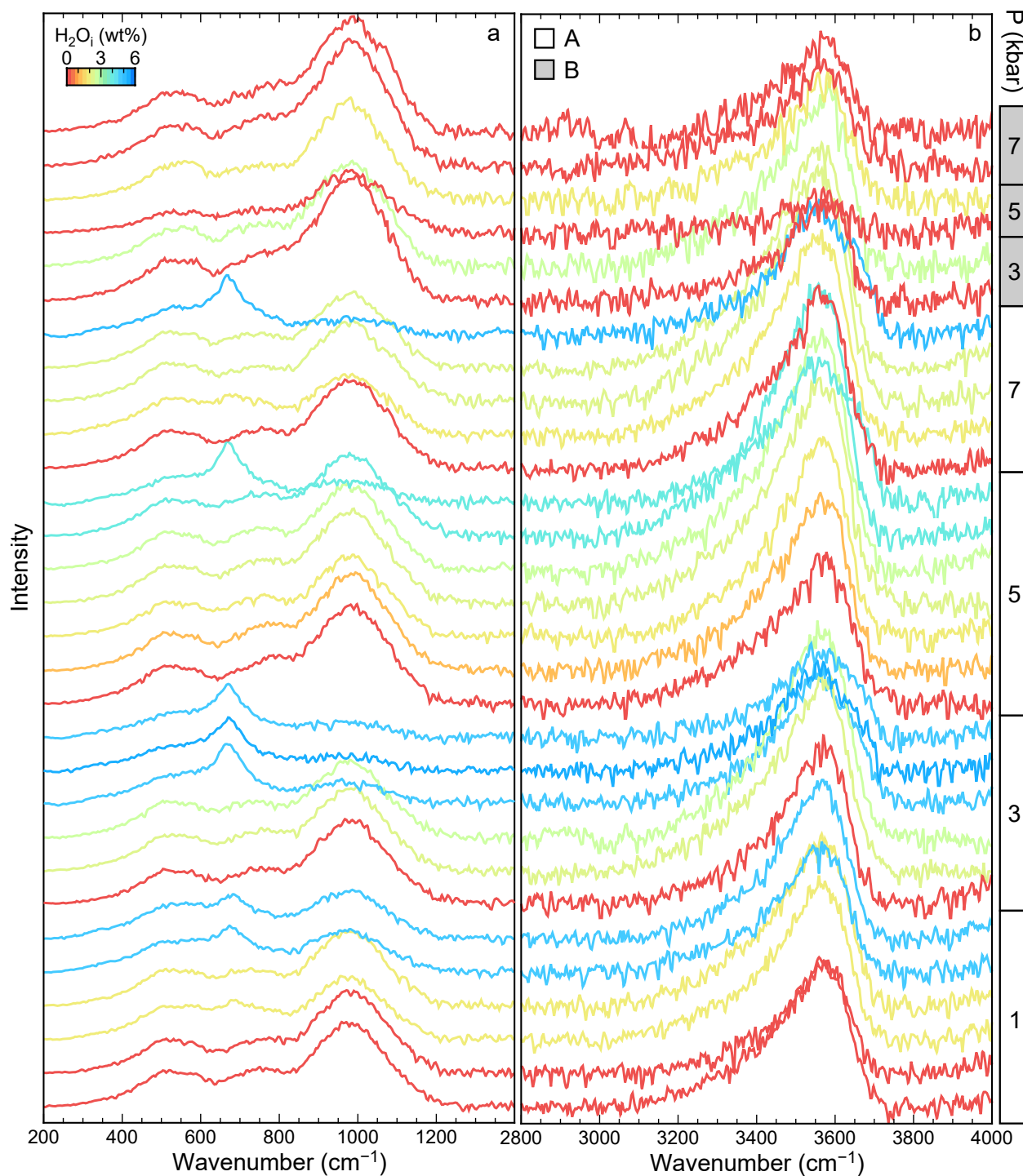


Figure F.1: Raman spectra for ETNA glasses in Chapters 4 and 5, which have been corrected for temperature, excitation line effects and backgrounds (Di Genova et al., 2017b). (a) low wavenumber and (b) high wavenumber regions, which are grouped by pressure and coloured by initial H_2O concentration. White and grey boxes on the right-hand side indicate A and B glasses respectively. One spectrum is shown per glass, which are offset for clarity, and intensity units are arbitrary.

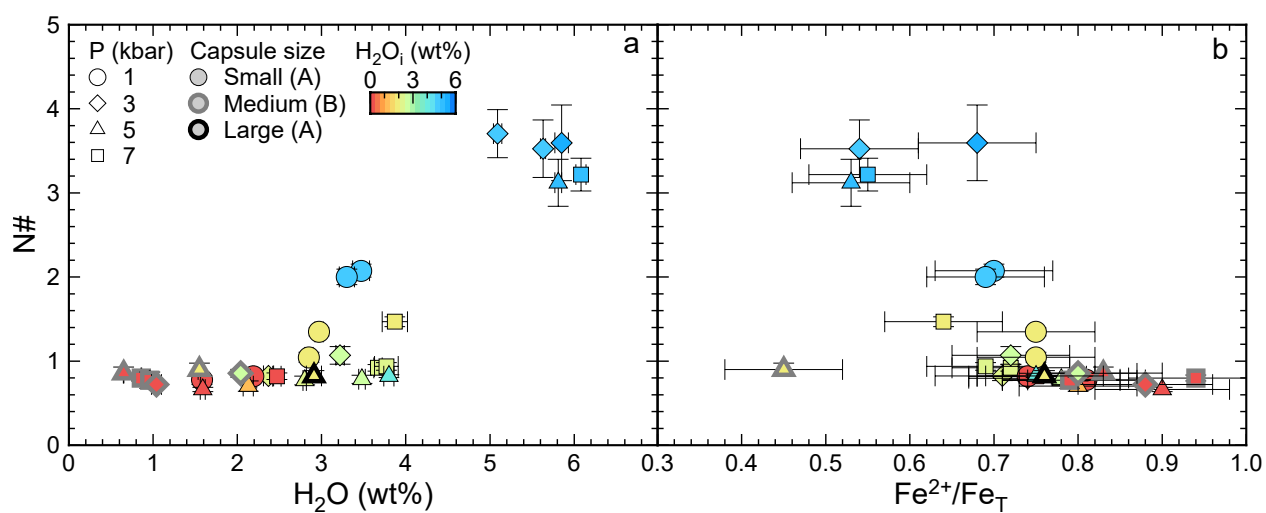
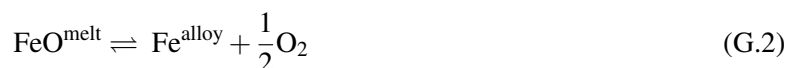


Figure F.2: Degree of nanoliteisation ($N\#$, Equation 6.7, Di Genova et al. 2018) against (a) H_2O and (b) Fe oxidation state, where symbol shape indicates pressure, outline capsule size, and colour initial H_2O concentration.

Appendix G – Calculating fugacities and activities

G.1. Theory

During glass synthesis, the melt in the capsule equilibrates to the f_{H_2} imposed by the IHPV by concurrent H_2 infiltration and oxidation and Fe loss and reduction (Section 5.2.1):



The equilibrium constant for Equation G.1 is:

$$K_W = \frac{f_{H_2O}}{f_{H_2}\sqrt{f_{O_2}}} \quad (G.4)$$

where f_{H_2O} can be substituted for activity using:

$$f_{H_2O} = a_{H_2O} \cdot f_{H_2O}^* \quad (G.5)$$

where * indicates a specified reference state, hence:

$$f_{H_2O}^* = f_{H_2}^* \cdot \sqrt{f_{O_2}^*} \cdot K_W^* \quad (G.6)$$

which gives:

$$f_{O_2} = \frac{a_{H_2O}^2 \cdot f_{O_2}^* \cdot (f_{H_2}^*)^2 \cdot (K_W^*)^2}{f_{H_2}^2 \cdot K_W^2} \quad (G.7)$$

Taking the logarithm of both sides gives:

$$\log f_{O_2} = 2\log a_{H_2O} + c \quad (G.8)$$

where:

$$c = \log \frac{f_{O_2}^* \cdot (f_{H_2}^*)^2 \cdot (K_W^*)^2}{f_{H_2}^2 \cdot K_W^2} \quad (G.9)$$

which is constant at fixed pressure and temperature.

G.2. Application to the experimental data

All experiments were conducted at the same temperature (1250 °C) therefore, from Equation G.8, each set of experiments run at the same pressure should have a linear relationship for $\log f_{\text{O}_2}$ against $\log a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ with a slope of two. The glass $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ can be used to calculate f_{O_2} using Kress and Carmichael (1991) (Figure G.1a). The melt H_2O concentration can be used to estimate the $a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ at a given pressure, temperature, and melt composition using Burnham (1979) (Figure G.1b). Figure G.1c shows f_{O_2} using Kress and Carmichael (1991) against $a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ using Burnham (1979) for all glasses, whilst Figure G.1d is a subset of the data which all have the same capsule size and anhydrous glass composition. For the subset of the data shown in Figure G.1d, the best fit through each pressure has been calculated using Equation G.8. Data for 1 and 3 kbar agree well with the model (i.e., slope ~ 2), whilst 5 and 7 kbar have a slope > 2 .

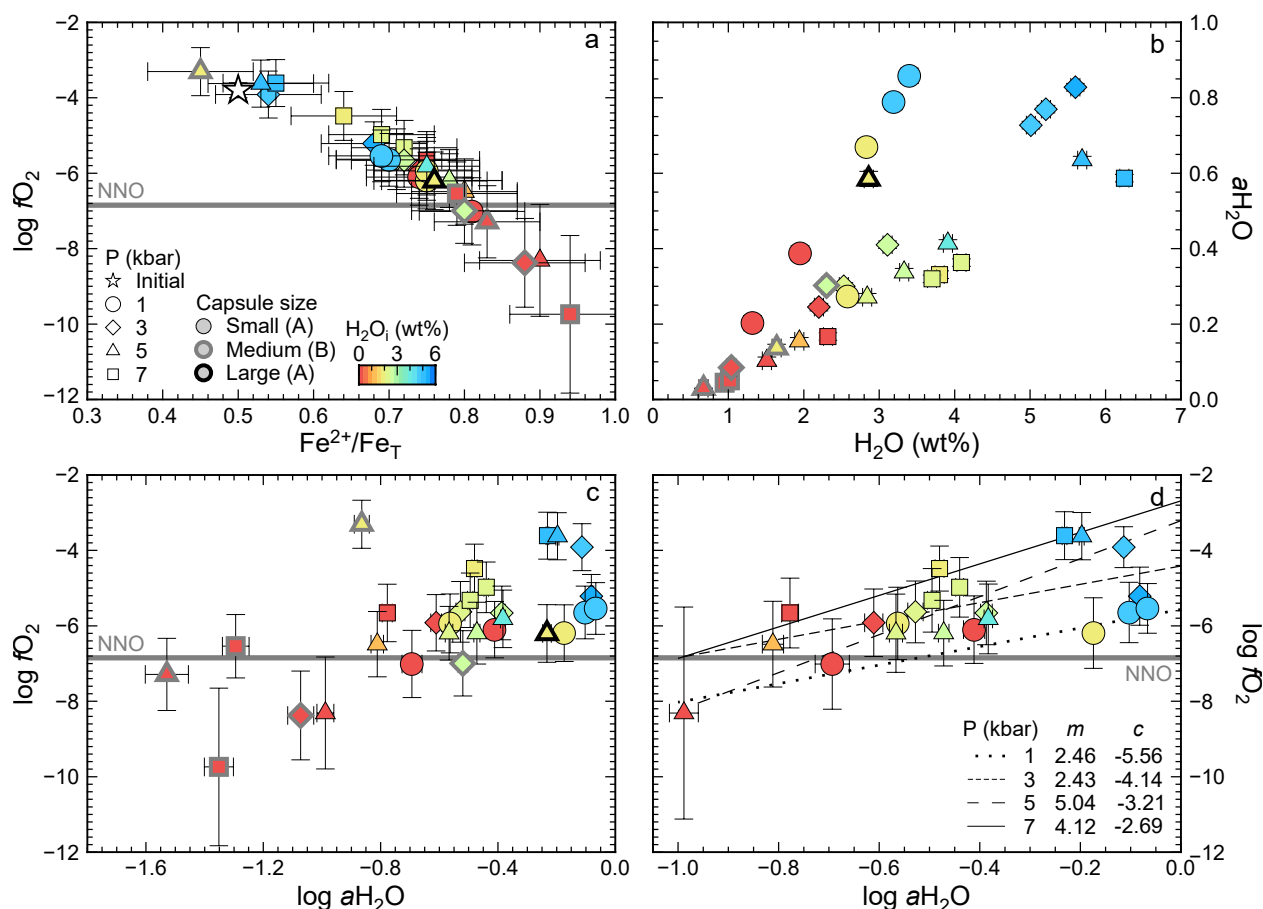


Figure G.1: Oxygen fugacity (f_{O_2}) and H_2O activity ($a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$) for experimental glasses, where symbol shape indicates pressure, outline capsule size, and colour initial H_2O concentration: **(a)** $\log f_{\text{O}_2}$ calculated using Kress and Carmichael (1991) against $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_\text{T}$ for all glasses; **(b)** $a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ calculated using Burnham (1979) against H_2O concentration; $\log f_{\text{O}_2}$ against $\log a_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ (Burnham, 1979) for **(c)** all experiments and **(d)** small capsules only, with best fits for each pressure using Equation G.8. The NNO buffer is shown for reference.

G.3. Calculating the f_{H_2} gradient

We can calculate the f_{H_2} gradient at the start of the experiment by comparing the initial and final f_{H_2} in the capsules ($f_{\text{H}_2}^i$ and $f_{\text{H}_2}^f$, respectively). Assuming H_2O equilibrium was been reached (Section 5.7.2), $f_{\text{H}_2}^f$ is the same as the IHPV f_{H_2} , which is providing the driving force. $f_{\text{H}_2}^i$ can be calculated using the initial

$\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ and H_2O from the weighed-in measurements to calculate $f\text{O}_2^i$ and $a\text{H}_2\text{O}^i$, which are shown in Figures G.1a and G.2a. H_2O has been set at 0.01 wt% for initially anhydrous glasses. Two values of $a\text{H}_2\text{O}^i > 1$, which correspond to the most hydrous 1 kbar experiments as they would have been saturated at the start of the experiment and therefore would not have had all their H_2O dissolved in the melt. Using Equation G.9, c can be calculated for the initial (c^i) and final (c^f) $f\text{O}_2$ and $a\text{H}_2\text{O}$. As $\log(f\text{O}_2^* \cdot (f\text{H}_2^*)^2 \cdot (K_W^*)^2)$ is constant, and K_W is constant at a given temperature and pressure:

$$\Delta f\text{H}_2 = \frac{f\text{H}_2^i}{f\text{H}_2^f} = \sqrt{\exp(c^f - c^i)} \quad (\text{G.10})$$

which is a measure of the gradient driving H_2 diffusion into the capsule. $\Delta f\text{H}_2$ increases with decreasing initial H_2O as the difference between the capsule and the IHPV is greatest (Figure G.2b). Fe loss (ΔFe_T) and final $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ also correlate with initial H_2O showing they are changing in response to $\Delta f\text{H}_2$ (Figures G.2c and d).

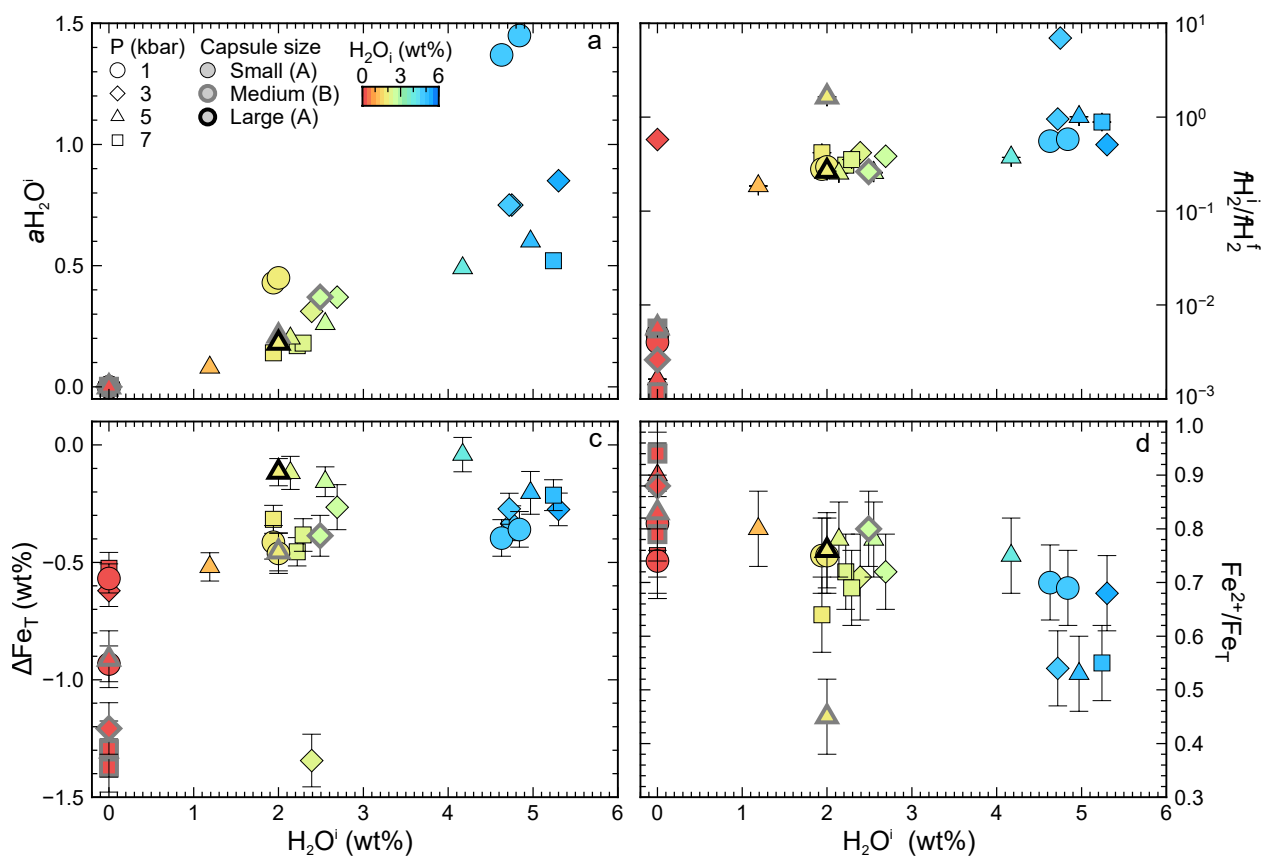


Figure G.2: (a) initial H_2O , (b) $f\text{H}_2$ gradient, (c) change in Fe concentration (ΔFe_T), and (d) final $\text{Fe}^{2+}/\text{Fe}_T$ against initial H_2O , where symbol shape indicates pressure, outline capsule size, and colour initial H_2O concentration.

G.4. Calculating $a\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Alternatively, $a\text{H}_2\text{O}$ can be calculated using Equation G.7 by setting the reference state as the intrinsic redox conditions of the IHPV at $a\text{H}_2\text{O} = 1$. Assuming K_W and $f\text{H}_2$ are constant at fixed pressure and temperature (i.e., K_W only depends on P and T, and H_2 diffuses fast enough to maintain $f\text{H}_2$ inside and outside the

capsule), Equation G.7 becomes:

$$fO_2^{\text{cap}} = fO_2^{\text{IHPV}} \cdot (aH_2O)^2 \quad (\text{G.11})$$

$$\log(fO_2^{\text{cap}}) = \log(fO_2^{\text{IHPV}}) + 2\log(aH_2O) \quad (\text{G.12})$$

where subscript IHPV indicates the intrinsic redox conditions in the IHPV being the reference state and subscript cap being the conditions within the capsule. Therefore, aH_2O can be calculated using:

$$\log aH_2O = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{fO_2^{\text{cap}}}{fO_2^{\text{IHPV}}} \quad (\text{G.13})$$

The intrinsic redox state of the IHPV has been measured twice and gives values of NNO+3.5 (Berndt et al., 2002) and NNO+2.6 (Schuessler et al., 2008). Results using both fO_2^{IHPV} are shown in Figure G.3 and show that calculated aH_2O is very sensitive to the choice of fO_2^{IHPV} . Some values of $aH_2O > 1$ for $fO_2^{\text{IHPV}} = \text{NNO}+2.6$, therefore the actual fO_2^{IHPV} must be more positive than this. Activity calculated in this way is far less than that calculated using Burnham (1979), except at $H_2O > 5$ wt%. Burnham (1979) has a linear relationship between aH_2O and dissolved H_2O , whereas using fO_2^{IHPV} to calculate aH_2O increases rapidly at high dissolved H_2O concentrations regardless of fO_2^{IHPV} chosen (Figures G.1b and G3). As aH_2O calculated in this way depends so critically on fO_2^{IHPV} , which was not measured during these experiments, these aH_2O are treated with caution.

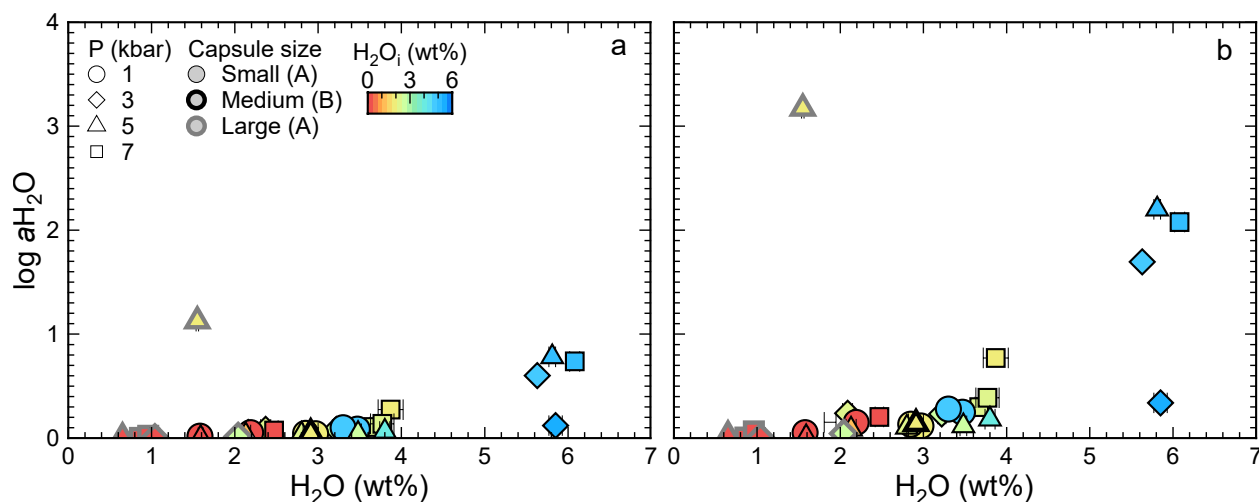


Figure G.3: H_2O activity (aH_2O) calculated assuming an intrinsic IHPV fO_2 (a) NNO+3.5 (Berndt et al., 2002) and (b) NNO+2.6 (Schuessler et al., 2008), where symbol shape indicates pressure, outline capsule size, and colour initial H_2O concentration.

Appendix H

Chapter 6 data: Melt inclusion study of the 23/11/13 Etna eruption

Table H.1: Olivine compositions.

Table H.2: Pyroxene compositions.

Table H.3: Plagioclase inclusion compositions.

Table H.4: Description of glass analyses.

Table H.5: Raman data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass.

Table H.6: SIMS data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass.

Table H.7: EPMA data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass.

Table H.1: Olivine compositions ($n = 282$).

Sample	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	NiO	Fo
ETNAB_a1	39.25	0.04	16.71	0.26	43.22	0.23	0.02	0.03	0.09	82.2
ETNAB_a2	38.79	0.05	19.28	0.31	41.28	0.28	0.01	0.07	0.07	79.2
ETNAB_a3	38.47	0.03	21.07	0.37	39.51	0.31	0.02	0.05	0.04	77.0
ETNAB_a4	37.99	0.04	24.27	0.52	37.01	0.33	0.02	0.03	-0.01	73.1
ETNAB_a5	37.71	0.03	25.60	0.55	35.85	0.33	0.02	0.02	0.01	71.4
ETNAB_a6	38.09	0.04	22.30	0.48	38.26	0.36	0.02	0.10	0.02	75.4
ETNAB_a7	38.40	0.03	21.33	0.39	39.28	0.23	0.02	0.03	0.06	76.6
ETNAB_aa1	37.78	0.05	24.90	0.57	36.04	0.39	0.03	0.07	0.01	72.1
ETNAB_aa2	38.73	0.04	18.66	0.32	41.41	0.29	0.01	0.03	0.06	79.8
ETNAB_aa3	38.86	0.04	19.68	0.32	40.84	0.26	0.01	0.03	0.07	78.7
ETNAB_aa4	38.40	0.04	20.21	0.36	39.93	0.25	0.02	0.05	0.06	77.9
ETNAB_b1	37.77	0.04	25.48	0.57	35.89	0.38	0.03	0.04	0.01	71.5
ETNAB_b2	37.50	0.04	25.76	0.57	35.51	0.40	0.02	0.03	0.00	71.1
ETNAB_b3	38.95	0.03	18.51	0.30	41.72	0.23	0.01	0.02	0.08	80.1
ETNAB_b4	38.92	0.03	18.29	0.31	41.92	0.23	0.01	0.01	0.08	80.3
ETNAB_b5	39.30	0.04	17.46	0.29	42.52	0.24	0.02	0.04	0.09	81.3
ETNAB_b7	37.66	0.04	25.20	0.55	36.10	0.38	0.02	0.02	0.02	71.9
ETNAB_b8	39.04	0.03	18.34	0.29	41.74	0.25	0.02	0.03	0.05	80.2
ETNAB_e1	37.83	0.04	25.07	0.51	36.62	0.24	0.02	0.04	0.03	72.2
ETNAB_e3	39.09	0.04	17.01	0.27	42.61	0.24	0.02	0.03	0.09	81.7
ETNAB_e4	38.33	0.04	21.60	0.42	38.74	0.30	0.02	0.05	0.02	76.2
ETNAB_e5	38.17	0.04	22.75	0.44	37.89	0.24	0.02	0.03	0.05	74.8
ETNAB_e6	37.65	0.05	25.52	0.55	35.90	0.33	0.03	0.03	0.03	71.5
ETNAB_e7	39.14	0.04	17.81	0.28	41.99	0.24	0.02	0.02	0.08	80.8
ETNAB_e8	37.70	0.03	25.37	0.55	35.81	0.39	0.03	0.02	0.01	71.6
ETNAB_e9	38.66	0.05	20.21	0.36	40.20	0.23	0.02	0.02	0.03	78.0
ETNAB_f1	38.73	0.03	19.89	0.37	40.36	0.29	0.02	0.02	0.04	78.3
ETNAB_f2	37.91	0.04	24.53	0.51	36.66	0.25	0.02	0.02	0.05	72.7
ETNAB_f4	39.09	0.03	17.90	0.28	42.23	0.24	0.01	0.05	0.08	80.8
ETNAB_f5	37.43	0.03	26.89	0.66	34.71	0.32	0.03	0.05	0.01	69.7
ETNAB_f6	37.49	0.04	26.48	0.59	35.16	0.30	0.02	0.03	0.02	70.3
ETNAB_f7	39.13	0.03	17.22	0.27	42.97	0.24	0.01	0.03	0.11	81.6
ETNAB_f9	38.83	0.03	19.43	0.35	40.69	0.30	0.02	0.02	0.06	78.9
ETNAB_f10	39.28	0.05	17.72	0.28	42.18	0.25	0.01	0.02	0.08	80.9
ETNAB_f11	38.54	0.05	20.73	0.38	39.58	0.29	0.01	0.03	0.03	77.3
ETNAB_f13	37.95	0.04	23.36	0.57	37.50	0.24	0.03	0.06	0.02	74.1
ETNAB_g1	37.62	0.04	25.93	0.58	35.50	0.39	0.03	0.04	0.03	70.9
ETNAB_g2	38.80	0.04	19.05	0.32	41.06	0.22	0.02	0.03	0.07	79.3
ETNAB_g3	36.78	0.03	30.49	0.75	31.72	0.36	0.03	0.04	0.00	65.0
ETNAB_g4	38.60	0.04	21.05	0.38	39.58	0.31	0.01	0.02	0.05	77.0
ETNAB_g5	38.97	0.04	19.38	0.31	41.08	0.26	0.02	0.03	0.06	79.1
ETNAB_c3	37.74	0.04	25.75	0.55	35.72	0.36	0.03	0.04	0.01	71.2
ETNAB_c4	38.75	0.04	19.94	0.34	40.67	0.25	0.01	0.02	0.06	78.4
ETNAB_c6	39.21	0.03	17.44	0.27	42.63	0.21	0.02	0.02	0.09	81.3
ETNAB_c7	37.49	0.04	26.58	0.63	34.54	0.42	0.02	0.04	0.02	69.8

Table H.1: Olivine compositions ($n = 282$) *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	NiO	Fo
ETNAB_c8	39.15	0.03	17.85	0.27	41.97	0.25	0.01	0.02	0.09	80.7
ETNAB_d2	37.36	0.04	27.28	0.62	34.13	0.42	0.03	0.07	0.02	69.0
ETNAB_d3	39.17	0.03	17.45	0.27	42.28	0.24	0.02	0.02	0.08	81.2
ETNAB_d5	37.37	0.04	27.51	0.60	34.18	0.41	0.03	0.05	0.00	68.9
ETNAB_d6	38.57	0.04	21.52	0.40	39.12	0.23	0.02	0.04	0.03	76.4
REDh_nrMIbig	39.30	0.03	16.95	0.27	43.00	0.22	0.00	0.01	0.10	81.9
REDh_nrMIsmall	39.17	0.03	17.30	0.28	42.38	0.22	0.01	0.01	0.07	81.4
REDh_core	39.20	0.03	16.89	0.27	43.02	0.20	0.01	0.02	0.08	81.9
REDr1_nrMI-out	39.29	0.08	18.03	0.29	41.97	0.36	0.01	0.01	0.07	80.6
REDr1_nrMI-out	39.39	0.04	17.96	0.28	42.20	0.31	0.01	0.01	0.06	80.7
REDr1_nrMI-out	39.36	0.04	17.96	0.29	42.10	0.29	0.01	0.01	0.07	80.7
REDr1_nrMI-out	39.26	0.03	17.98	0.28	42.24	0.27	0.01	0.01	0.08	80.7
REDr1_nrMI-out	39.13	0.03	17.79	0.28	42.05	0.25	0.01	0.00	0.08	80.8
REDr1_nrMI-out	39.23	0.04	17.79	0.29	42.21	0.24	0.00	0.01	0.08	80.9
REDr1_nrMI-out	39.22	0.03	17.91	0.28	42.11	0.24	0.00	0.01	0.08	80.7
REDr1_nrMI-out	39.35	0.02	17.93	0.28	42.21	0.24	0.00	0.01	0.08	80.8
REDr1_nrMI-out	39.20	0.03	17.87	0.28	42.35	0.22	0.00	0.01	0.06	80.9
REDr1_nrMI-out	39.18	0.03	17.69	0.27	42.24	0.23	0.00	0.01	0.09	81.0
REDr1_core	39.16	0.03	17.73	0.29	42.17	0.23	0.00	0.02	0.08	80.9
REDn_nrMIbubble	39.35	0.03	17.10	0.25	43.17	0.26	0.01	0.01	0.10	81.8
REDn_core	39.29	0.03	17.19	0.24	42.87	0.19	0.01	0.01	0.09	81.6
REDg_nrMI	38.70	0.04	19.96	0.33	40.74	0.25	0.01	0.04	0.04	78.4
REDg_core	38.75	0.04	19.91	0.31	40.81	0.16	0.02	0.05	0.06	78.5
REDg_core	38.90	0.04	19.56	0.31	41.30	0.19	0.01	0.04	0.04	79.0
REDg_core	38.87	0.04	19.12	0.31	41.48	0.18	0.01	0.04	0.05	79.5
REDe1_nrMI	38.27	0.02	22.89	0.48	38.17	0.28	0.00	0.02	0.02	74.8
REDe1_core	38.09	0.03	23.28	0.48	37.70	0.29	0.01	0.02	0.02	74.3
REDe1_core	38.22	0.03	23.33	0.47	37.89	0.31	0.01	0.01	0.02	74.3
REDe1_core	38.29	0.02	22.87	0.47	38.49	0.29	0.01	0.02	0.01	75.0
REDe3_nrMI	38.98	0.03	18.98	0.33	41.42	0.26	0.02	0.02	0.07	79.6
REDe3_core	39.02	0.04	18.61	0.30	41.61	0.21	0.01	0.02	0.08	79.9
REDe3_core	39.17	0.03	18.16	0.29	42.07	0.21	0.01	0.02	0.07	80.5
REDe3_core	39.30	0.03	17.84	0.27	42.31	0.23	0.01	0.02	0.08	80.9
RED17_nrMIbubble	38.28	0.04	22.16	0.44	38.74	0.29	0.01	0.03	0.03	75.7
RED17_nrMIbubble	38.49	0.04	22.39	0.45	38.71	0.28	0.01	0.02	0.03	75.5
RED17_core	38.45	0.03	22.46	0.46	38.56	0.26	0.02	0.02	0.03	75.4
REDd_nrMIbubble	38.81	0.03	19.63	0.32	40.70	0.23	0.01	0.01	0.07	78.7
REDd_nrMIbubble	39.05	0.03	19.70	0.34	41.08	0.22	0.01	0.00	0.07	78.8
REDd_core	39.40	0.03	17.68	0.26	42.39	0.22	0.01	0.01	0.09	81.0
REDd_core	39.31	0.03	17.99	0.30	42.22	0.21	0.01	0.07	0.07	80.7
REDd_core	39.35	0.03	18.42	0.29	41.80	0.22	0.01	0.01	0.08	80.2
CYAN_h1_Ol_nr33.64	38.29	0.05	20.84	0.38	40.31	0.29	0.02	0.02	0.04	77.5
CYAN_h2_core_Ol	37.17	0.04	26.52	0.59	34.88	0.41	0.02	0.03	0.00	70.1
CYAN_h3_core_Ol	38.33	0.04	19.79	0.32	40.86	0.22	0.02	0.01	0.06	78.6
CYAN_h4_core_Ol	37.95	0.03	24.56	0.49	37.09	0.27	0.02	0.02	0.03	72.9

Table H.1: Olivine compositions ($n = 282$) *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	NiO	Fo
CYAN_g6_nr48.41_Ol	38.75	0.04	17.99	0.29	42.18	0.31	0.02	0.00	0.08	80.7
CYAN_g6_core_Ol	39.06	0.04	17.91	0.29	42.71	0.22	0.02	0.02	0.10	81.0
CYAN_g2_nrMI_Ol	37.30	0.05	25.42	0.57	35.66	0.39	0.02	0.04	0.01	71.4
CYAN_g2_core_Ol	36.97	0.04	26.09	0.56	35.31	0.39	0.03	0.08	0.01	70.7
CYAN_f2_nrMI_Ol	37.95	0.04	20.96	0.40	39.54	0.27	0.01	0.02	0.04	77.1
CYAN_f2_core_Ol	37.82	0.04	21.19	0.40	39.22	0.35	0.02	0.01	0.03	76.7
CYAN_e5_nrMI_Ol	38.31	0.03	18.95	0.33	41.02	0.25	0.02	0.02	0.08	79.4
CYAN_e3_nrMI_Ol	37.44	0.07	25.68	0.56	36.66	0.39	0.03	0.03	0.01	71.8
CYAN_e2_nrMI_Ol	37.24	0.05	24.29	0.51	36.66	0.32	0.01	0.02	0.01	72.9
CYAN_e2_core_Ol	36.90	0.05	25.62	0.54	35.70	0.32	0.02	0.04	0.01	71.3
CYAN_e1_nrT_Ol	37.31	0.04	24.85	0.56	36.87	0.40	0.02	0.01	0.02	72.6
CYAN_e1_nr36.00_Ol	37.04	0.04	24.56	0.56	36.75	0.41	0.03	0.01	0.03	72.7
CYAN_e1_core_Ol	37.02	0.03	25.10	0.55	36.18	0.41	0.02	0.02	0.00	72.0
CYAN_d4_nrMI_Ol	38.32	0.04	21.93	0.52	39.26	0.21	0.02	0.02	0.00	76.1
CYAN_d4_nrfakeMI_Ol	38.10	0.03	22.59	0.66	38.07	0.17	0.02	0.03	0.00	75.0
CYAN_d4_nrMG_Ol	37.98	0.03	22.14	0.59	38.18	0.21	0.01	0.02	0.02	75.5
CYAN_d4_core_Ol	37.57	0.03	23.38	0.79	37.67	0.13	0.02	0.04	0.00	74.2
CYAN_c2_nrMIbubble_Ol	38.56	0.03	17.78	0.29	42.48	0.23	0.01	0.00	0.08	81.0
CYAN_c2_core_Ol	38.49	0.03	17.92	0.29	42.61	0.22	0.01	0.01	0.08	80.9
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l5	38.13	0.05	22.09	0.43	38.75	0.22	0.01			75.8
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k13	37.96	0.05	24.10	0.52	36.78	0.38	0.02			73.1
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j7	37.58	0.04	25.14	0.54	35.80	0.30	0.02			71.7
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i6	37.63	0.05	22.36	0.44	38.27	0.32	0.01			75.3
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i5	37.54	0.04	25.53	0.56	35.73	0.33	0.02			71.4
CYAN_e5_core_Ol	38.81	0.03	17.47	0.28	43.05	0.20	0.01	0.01		81.5
CYAN_h1_Ol_nrbubble	37.65	0.04	20.42	0.38	39.49	0.26	0.01	0.01	0.05	77.5
CYAN_h1_Ol_nrbig	37.86	0.04	19.88	0.36	40.30	0.30	0.01	0.01	0.05	78.3
CYAN_h2_nr5292_Ol	36.74	0.04	25.50	0.59	35.34	0.33	0.01	0.03	0.00	71.2
CYAN_h3_nrMI_Ol	37.83	0.04	19.59	0.31	39.99	0.38	0.02	0.02	0.08	78.4
CYAN_e7_nrMI_Ol	38.26	0.04	17.45	0.27	42.02	0.26	0.01	0.00	0.07	81.1
CYAN_e7_core_Ol	38.31	0.04	17.92	0.31	41.83	0.27	0.00	0.02	0.07	80.6
CYAN_c2_nrMIlong_Ol	37.82	0.04	19.02	0.33	40.90	0.25	0.01	0.03	0.06	79.3
CYAN_a3_core_Ol	38.34	0.03	19.59	0.33	41.18	0.22	0.01	0.02	0.08	78.9
CYAN_a3_nrMI_Ol	38.33	0.05	20.27	0.35	39.59	0.25	0.01	0.01	0.05	77.7
Etna 231113 Ol a2_nr32.09	37.51	0.06	29.26	0.74	33.34	0.34	0.04	0.03	0.01	67.0
Etna 231113 Ol a2_nr30.98	37.40	0.05	29.21	0.72	33.38	0.31	0.04	0.04	0.02	67.1
Etna 231113 Ol a2_core	37.26	0.04	30.08	0.72	32.49	0.34	0.02	0.01	0.02	65.8
Etna 231113 Ol a6_nr36.26	38.55	0.04	23.09	0.47	38.17	0.30	0.01	0.01	0.03	74.7
Etna 231113 Ol a6_core	38.38	0.05	24.43	0.52	37.40	0.31	0.02	0.02	0.03	73.2
Etna 231113 Ol a9_l1.79	37.98	0.05	26.41	0.58	35.18	0.40	0.02	0.02	0.02	70.4
Etna 231113 Ol a9_core	37.82	0.04	27.18	0.60	34.99	0.35	0.03	0.03	0.02	69.6
Etna 231113 Ol a11_nr25.48	39.37	0.05	18.39	0.29	42.25	0.25	0.02	0.01	0.08	80.4
Etna 231113 Ol a11_nr12.05	39.40	0.04	18.27	0.28	42.28	0.27	0.02	0.02	0.09	80.5
Etna 231113 Ol a11_core	39.24	0.05	18.83	0.29	41.61	0.23	0.02	0.02	0.08	79.8
Etna 231113 Ol a12_nrn.d.	39.40	0.04	17.27	0.27	42.75	0.25	0.01	0.02	0.08	81.5

Table H.1: Olivine compositions ($n = 282$) *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	NiO	Fo
Etna 231113 Ol a12_nr41.76	39.39	0.04	17.81	0.28	42.41	0.26	0.01	0.01	0.10	80.9
Etna 231113 Ol a12_core	39.24	0.05	18.98	0.30	41.58	0.23	0.02	0.02	0.08	79.6
Etna 231113 Ol a13_nr20.69	38.37	0.05	23.36	0.46	37.98	0.31	0.02	0.02	0.05	74.3
Etna 231113 Ol a13_core	38.33	0.05	24.25	0.50	37.28	0.27	0.02	0.02	0.04	73.3
Etna 231113 Ol a17_nr61.31	38.39	0.06	23.75	0.47	37.72	0.39	0.03	0.03	0.03	73.9
Etna 231113 Ol a17_core	38.06	0.05	25.25	0.50	36.42	0.29	0.01	0.02	0.04	72.0
Etna 231113 Ol a178_nrn.d.	38.07	0.05	24.48	0.51	36.54	0.38	0.03	0.01	0.03	72.7
Etna 231113 Ol a178_nr33.42	37.96	0.05	25.27	0.53	36.08	0.34	0.02	0.01	0.02	71.8
Etna 231113 Ol a178_core	38.07	0.04	25.16	0.50	36.37	0.30	0.02	0.01	0.03	72.0
Etna231113Ol b4_nr7.55	38.86	0.05	21.68	0.39	39.33	0.32	0.02	0.02	0.04	76.4
Etna231113Ol b4_nr9.42	38.85	0.04	21.84	0.40	39.40	0.32	0.03	0.02	0.03	76.3
Etna231113Ol b4_core	38.65	0.04	22.98	0.46	38.38	0.37	0.03	0.02	0.03	74.9
Etna231113Ol b5_nrMG	38.53	0.04	23.84	0.60	37.62	0.22	0.03	0.03	0.01	73.8
Etna231113Ol b5_core	38.25	0.04	25.25	0.90	36.32	0.12	0.02	0.01	0.01	71.9
Etna231113Ol b7_nr88.25	39.65	0.04	16.91	0.25	43.10	0.27	0.01	0.01	0.10	82.0
Etna231113Ol b7_nr41.65	39.67	0.05	16.95	0.27	42.92	0.28	0.02	0.02	0.10	81.9
Etna231113Ol b7_nr26.27	39.62	0.04	17.10	0.26	42.98	0.24	0.01	0.01	0.11	81.8
Etna231113Ol b7_core	39.69	0.03	16.90	0.27	43.42	0.22	0.02	0.01	0.10	82.1
Etna231113Ol b10_nr37.90	39.05	0.04	19.67	0.33	40.79	0.30	0.01	0.01	0.06	78.7
Etna231113Ol b10_core	39.36	0.04	18.32	0.28	42.14	0.22	0.02	0.02	0.10	80.4
Etna231113Ol b14_nr37.53	38.97	0.06	20.81	0.37	39.91	0.27	0.02	0.01	0.04	77.4
Etna231113Ol b14_core	39.15	0.05	19.82	0.33	40.58	0.25	0.01	0.03	0.06	78.5
Etna231113Ol c2_nr10.64	39.34	0.05	19.40	0.32	41.31	0.26	0.01	0.01	0.06	79.1
Etna231113Ol c2_core	39.08	0.03	21.16	0.36	40.01	0.27	0.02	0.01	0.05	77.1
Etna231113Ol c3_nr20.07	39.02	0.05	21.58	0.41	39.38	0.23	0.01	0.01	0.03	76.5
Etna231113Ol c3_core	39.16	0.05	21.20	0.39	39.79	0.22	0.03	0.02	0.05	77.0
Etna231113Ol c10_nr45.28	39.54	0.04	17.57	0.28	42.69	0.27	0.02	0.01	0.09	81.2
Etna231113Ol c10_nr45.06	39.44	0.05	17.62	0.28	42.17	0.29	0.02	0.02	0.08	81.0
Etna231113Ol c10_core	39.61	0.03	17.45	0.27	42.79	0.26	0.01	0.01	0.09	81.4
Etna231113Ol c12_nr1	38.34	0.04	24.27	0.50	36.95	0.30	0.03	0.01	0.02	73.1
Etna231113Ol c12_nr2	39.21	0.03	18.96	0.32	41.43	0.29	0.02	0.01	0.07	79.6
Etna231113Ol c12_nr3	38.24	0.04	24.71	0.53	36.46	0.36	0.03	0.01	0.02	72.5
Etna231113Ol c12_core	37.50	0.05	29.42	0.69	32.78	0.31	0.03	0.03	0.01	66.5
Etna231113Ol c14_nr20.12	38.82	0.04	20.80	0.38	39.88	0.22	0.02	0.02	0.05	77.4
Etna231113Ol c14_nr13.62	38.78	0.04	21.40	0.40	39.42	0.22	0.01	0.01	0.06	76.7
Etna231113Ol c14_core	38.18	0.04	25.06	0.54	36.31	0.18	0.03	0.03	0.02	72.1
Etna231113Ol d6_nr50.99	39.58	0.04	17.91	0.29	42.56	0.26	0.02	0.01	0.07	80.9
Etna231113Ol d6_core	39.48	0.04	17.83	0.28	42.42	0.24	0.02	0.01	0.09	80.9
Etna231113Ol d7_nr19.13	39.53	0.05	17.96	0.29	42.29	0.28	0.03	0.01	0.07	80.8
Etna231113Ol d7_c	39.68	0.03	17.07	0.25	43.02	0.22	0.02	0.02	0.09	81.8
Etna231113Ol d8_c	39.21	0.04	20.36	0.40	40.26	0.23	0.02	0.02	0.06	77.9
Etna231113Ol d9_nr29.05	38.33	0.06	25.22	0.50	36.60	0.32	0.04	0.04	0.02	72.1
Etna231113Ol d9c	38.28	0.05	25.21	0.52	36.42	0.30	0.04	0.05	0.03	72.0
Etna231113Ol d11_nr1	39.31	0.05	17.89	0.30	41.79	0.29	0.02	0.03	0.08	80.6
Etna231113Ol d11_nr2	39.19	0.06	18.62	0.32	41.58	0.29	0.02	0.03	0.07	79.9

Table H.1: Olivine compositions ($n = 282$) *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	NiO	Fo
Etna231113Ol d11_c	39.44	0.05	18.18	0.29	42.04	0.27	0.02	0.03	0.06	80.5
Etna231113Ol d13_nr26.62	39.09	0.05	20.47	0.34	40.18	0.26	0.03	0.01	0.05	77.8
Etna231113Ol d13_nr31.23	38.77	0.04	21.39	0.38	39.49	0.28	0.02	0.01	0.05	76.7
Etna231113Ol d13_c	39.15	0.04	19.80	0.33	40.90	0.26	0.02	0.01	0.06	78.6
Etna231113Ol d15_c	38.30	0.05	24.13	0.50	37.09	0.31	0.02	0.03	0.04	73.3
Etna231113Ol e5_c	39.79	0.05	16.66	0.25	43.49	0.22	0.01	0.02	0.11	82.3
Etna231113Ol e7_nr1	39.02	0.05	20.34	0.34	40.61	0.32	0.01	0.02	0.06	78.1
Etna231113Ol e7_nr2	38.90	0.05	20.88	0.37	39.82	0.30	0.02	0.01	0.05	77.3
Etna231113Ol e7_nr3	38.93	0.06	20.80	0.37	39.83	0.31	0.02	0.01	0.05	77.3
Etna231113Ol e7_nr4	38.80	0.05	21.76	0.39	39.31	0.29	0.02	0.00	0.05	76.3
Etna231113Ol e7_nr5	39.00	0.06	21.11	0.37	39.86	0.27	0.02	0.01	0.05	77.1
Etna231113Ol e7_nr6	38.69	0.06	22.11	0.40	39.11	0.39	0.03	0.02	0.05	75.9
Etna231113Ol e7_nr59.12	38.95	0.04	20.76	0.36	39.98	0.27	0.02	0.01	0.05	77.4
Etna231113Ol e7_nr24.99	38.93	0.04	20.93	0.35	39.99	0.30	0.03	0.02	0.06	77.3
Etna231113Ol e7_nr30.77	38.79	0.05	21.69	0.40	39.64	0.32	0.02	0.01	0.06	76.5
Etna231113Ol e7_c	37.91	0.05	26.43	0.58	35.51	0.33	0.03	0.02	0.03	70.5
Etna231113Ol e9_nr45.28	37.72	0.06	26.52	0.59	35.35	0.38	0.03	0.03	0.02	70.4
Etna231113Ol e9_c	37.69	0.04	26.81	0.58	34.45	0.37	0.03	0.02	0.02	69.6
Etna231113Ol e11_nr22.41	39.07	0.05	18.77	0.30	41.27	0.28	0.01	0.01	0.07	79.7
Etna231113Ol e11_c	38.99	0.04	18.74	0.30	41.52	0.27	0.01	0.01	0.07	79.8
Etna231113Ol e11_nr12.48	38.82	0.04	19.60	0.34	40.67	0.28	0.02	0.01	0.06	78.7
Etna231113Ol e11_nr14.42	39.13	0.07	18.92	0.30	41.09	0.33	0.02	0.02	0.06	79.5
Etna231113Ol e11_nr15.16	38.97	0.04	19.52	0.31	40.82	0.28	0.02	0.01	0.06	78.8
Etna231113Ol e14_nr64.18	38.55	0.05	21.68	0.37	39.20	0.28	0.02	0.01	0.05	76.3
Etna231113Ol e14_nr35.96	38.52	0.05	22.12	0.40	38.56	0.30	0.02	0.01	0.05	75.7
Etna231113Ol e14_nr39.45	37.99	0.74	23.64	0.45	35.82	0.44	0.23	0.04	0.04	73.0
Etna231113Ol e14_nr30.42	38.75	0.04	19.71	0.31	40.64	0.28	0.02	0.01	0.06	78.6
Etna231113Ol e14_c	38.95	0.05	20.04	0.32	40.45	0.24	0.02	0.02	0.07	78.3
Etna231113Ol f4_nr31.84	38.82	0.04	22.34	0.43	38.86	0.21	0.02	0.03	0.01	75.6
Etna231113Ol f4_c	38.80	0.05	22.29	0.45	38.88	0.20	0.02	0.04	0.00	75.7
Etna231113Ol f3_nr19.95	38.39	0.06	25.03	0.54	36.34	0.40	0.03	0.01	0.04	72.1
Etna231113Ol f3_c	38.30	0.06	25.56	0.54	36.32	0.35	0.03	0.03	0.03	71.7
Etna231113Ol f4_nr11.15	38.04	0.06	26.21	0.57	35.45	0.38	0.03	0.03	0.02	70.7
Etna231113Ol f4_c	38.05	0.05	26.32	0.56	35.65	0.38	0.03	0.04	0.02	70.7
Etna231113Ol f10_nr12.99	39.00	0.04	18.62	0.31	41.38	0.29	0.03	0.02	0.07	79.8
Etna231113Ol f10_c	38.87	0.05	19.29	0.32	40.89	0.30	0.02	0.02	0.05	79.1
Etna231113Ol f12_nr21.26	38.78	0.05	20.59	0.36	40.00	0.26	0.02	0.02	0.05	77.6
Etna231113Ol f12_c	38.66	0.05	20.55	0.37	40.07	0.23	0.02	0.01	0.05	77.7
Etna231113Ol g3_nr43.05	39.23	0.06	18.87	0.32	41.24	0.27	0.02	0.01	0.06	79.6
Etna231113Ol g3_nr35.69	39.42	0.05	18.55	0.31	41.82	0.26	0.02	0.01	0.07	80.1
Etna231113Ol g3_nr30.15	39.66	0.04	17.82	0.29	42.37	0.25	0.02	0.02	0.08	80.9
Etna231113Ol g3_nr21.25	39.30	0.05	19.16	0.31	41.25	0.27	0.02	0.01	0.07	79.3
Etna231113Ol g3_c	39.49	0.04	18.41	0.29	42.21	0.24	0.02	0.00	0.08	80.3
Etna231113Ol g4_nr16.76	39.11	0.05	19.26	0.31	41.00	0.27	0.02	0.02	0.07	79.1
Etna231113Ol g4_nr19.99	39.14	0.05	20.22	0.35	40.21	0.27	0.02	0.02	0.06	78.0

Table H.1: Olivine compositions ($n = 282$) *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	NiO	Fo
Etna231113Ol g4_c	39.24	0.04	19.54	0.34	40.75	0.24	0.02	0.02	0.07	78.8
Etna231113Ol g5_nr44.09	39.53	0.05	17.73	0.28	42.37	0.26	0.03	0.01	0.09	81.0
Etna231113Ol g5_c	39.35	0.05	17.88	0.26	41.92	0.23	0.02	0.02	0.09	80.7
Etna231113Ol g8_c	37.78	0.07	24.94	0.52	36.13	0.31	0.03	0.08	0.02	72.1
Etna231113Ol g13_nr1	38.51	0.06	21.02	0.37	39.42	0.25	0.02	0.03	0.05	77.0
Etna231113Ol g13_nr2	38.25	0.04	21.30	0.40	38.82	0.26	0.01	0.02	0.03	76.5
Etna231113Ol g13_nr32.95	38.55	0.05	20.75	0.36	39.50	0.26	0.02	0.01	0.06	77.2
Etna231113Ol g13_nr67.67	38.40	0.04	20.71	0.36	39.72	0.27	0.03	0.01	0.04	77.4
Etna231113Ol g13_nr77.33	38.67	0.06	19.82	0.33	40.35	0.26	0.02	0.05	0.07	78.4
Etna231113Ol h4_n20.57	38.40	0.05	22.52	0.42	38.36	0.35	0.03	0.01	0.03	75.2
Etna231113Ol h4_n20.47	38.50	0.04	21.86	0.40	38.94	0.35	0.02	0.01	0.04	76.0
Etna231113Ol h4_n19.42	38.55	0.05	21.31	0.38	39.42	0.31	0.02	0.01	0.05	76.7
Etna231113Ol h4_c	38.59	0.05	20.96	0.36	39.76	0.34	0.02	0.01	0.05	77.2
Etna231113Ol h8_nr39.82	38.01	0.05	23.22	0.47	37.43	0.40	0.04	0.01	0.02	74.2
Etna231113Ol h8_c	37.57	0.04	26.00	0.57	35.32	0.37	0.04	0.01	0.02	70.8
Etna231113Ol h9_nr8.73	38.93	0.05	18.49	0.28	41.46	0.26	0.02	0.03	0.07	80.0
Etna231113Ol h9_nr12.64	38.60	0.05	19.28	0.31	40.80	0.26	0.02	0.00	0.06	79.0
Etna231113Ol h9_nr16.38	38.84	0.04	18.54	0.30	41.59	0.28	0.02	0.01	0.07	80.0
Etna231113Ol h9_c	39.04	0.04	18.51	0.30	41.49	0.26	0.02	0.03	0.08	80.0
Etna231113Ol h12_nr25.66	38.58	0.04	19.24	0.30	40.79	0.26	0.01	0.02	0.06	79.1
Etna231113Ol h12_nr38.80	38.58	0.04	19.53	0.30	40.50	0.25	0.02	0.01	0.07	78.7
Etna231113Ol h12_nr54.73	38.48	0.05	19.66	0.30	40.56	0.25	0.01	0.01	0.07	78.6
Etna231113Ol h12_c	38.46	0.05	19.72	0.31	40.56	0.24	0.02	0.02	0.07	78.6
Etna231113Ol h13_nr10.06	37.51	0.06	25.93	0.55	35.45	0.40	0.02	0.03	0.02	70.9
Etna231113Ol h13_nr15.23	37.63	0.05	24.83	0.51	36.29	0.38	0.02	0.01	0.04	72.3
Etna231113Ol h13_nr18.80	37.65	0.04	25.49	0.53	35.71	0.40	0.02	0.01	0.02	71.4
Etna231113Ol h13_nr10.23	37.49	0.06	25.79	0.54	35.35	0.38	0.04	0.00	0.03	71.0
Etna231113Ol h13_nr91.38	37.52	0.06	25.27	0.55	35.81	0.40	0.03	0.04	0.02	71.6
Etna231113Ol h13_nr23.71	37.42	0.05	25.78	0.52	35.36	0.44	0.03	0.02	0.02	71.0
Etna231113Ol h13_c	37.62	0.05	25.50	0.52	35.94	0.36	0.02	0.02	0.03	71.5
Etna231113Ol i2_nr34.42	38.02	0.06	24.77	0.51	36.63	0.40	0.03	0.02	0.02	72.5
Etna231113Ol i2_nr31.09	38.14	0.06	23.50	0.48	37.46	0.39	0.03	0.05	0.03	74.0
Etna231113Ol i2_nr25.01	38.32	0.05	23.14	0.46	37.63	0.36	0.03	0.03	0.02	74.3
Etna231113Ol i2_c	37.88	0.06	26.16	0.55	35.34	0.38	0.04	0.03	0.01	70.7
Etna231113Ol i3_nr12.77	38.90	0.06	19.98	0.35	40.70	0.27	0.01	0.01	0.06	78.4
Etna231113Ol i3_nr20.32	39.00	0.09	18.66	0.30	41.59	0.28	0.02	0.03	0.07	79.9
Etna231113Ol i3_c	38.93	0.05	19.67	0.30	40.71	0.24	0.02	0.02	0.07	78.7
Etna231113Ol i6_nr17.66	38.83	0.05	19.73	0.33	40.74	0.25	0.02	0.01	0.06	78.6
Etna231113Ol i6_c	38.92	0.04	18.16	0.29	42.00	0.23	0.01	0.01	0.08	80.5
Etna231113Ol i8_nr14.35	37.63	0.04	24.36	0.51	36.77	0.32	0.03	0.02	0.03	72.9
Etna231113Ol i8_nr12.47	38.17	0.05	21.50	0.37	38.97	0.28	0.02	0.01	0.05	76.4
Etna231113Ol i8_c	37.24	0.05	26.32	0.58	35.06	0.30	0.02	0.04	0.03	70.4
Etna231113Ol i10_nr52.88	38.24	0.04	20.30	0.33	39.83	0.26	0.02	0.02	0.06	77.8
Etna231113Ol i10_nr22.33	38.41	0.05	20.40	0.33	40.10	0.25	0.02	0.02	0.06	77.8
Etna231113Ol i10_nr31.66	38.25	0.05	20.58	0.36	39.60	0.29	0.02	0.01	0.06	77.4

Table H.1: Olivine compositions ($n = 282$) *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	NiO	Fo
Etna231113Ol i10_c	38.35	0.05	20.29	0.34	39.97	0.25	0.02	0.03	0.06	77.8
Etna231113Ol i11_nr33.92	36.97	0.05	27.66	0.60	33.91	0.39	0.03	0.03	0.02	68.6
Etna231113Ol i11_c	37.03	0.04	27.87	0.60	33.95	0.38	0.03	0.06	0.02	68.5
Etna231113Ol i12_nr14.31	38.82	0.05	18.13	0.29	41.83	0.25	0.01	0.02	0.09	80.4
Etna231113Ol i12_nr9.42	38.61	0.05	18.84	0.28	41.20	0.24	0.02	0.01	0.08	79.6
Etna231113Ol i12_nr26.65	38.83	0.06	17.84	0.28	41.96	0.29	0.01	0.03	0.07	80.7
Etna231113Ol j4_nr43.22	38.21	0.05	21.78	0.42	38.48	0.27	0.02	0.02	0.05	75.9
Etna231113Ol j4_c	38.93	0.05	17.97	0.28	41.89	0.24	0.02	0.02	0.09	80.6
Etna231113Ol j8_nr11.08	38.10	0.05	21.21	0.39	39.38	0.31	0.02	0.03	0.02	76.8
Etna 231113Ol b1_c	37.74	-0.02	25.30	0.51	36.74	0.28	0.03	0.02	0.03	72.1
Etna 231113Ol b1_c	37.63	-0.02	25.77	0.54	35.90	0.34	0.04	0.02	0.03	71.3
Etna 231113Ol c6_c	38.59	0.07	21.78	0.42	39.22	0.38	0.03	0.03	0.03	76.2

Notes: All oxides are in wt% measured using EPMA as described in Section 6.3.4. Fo calculated using Equation 6.9. Sample names denote the mount (e.g., Etna2311Ol), followed by the crystal (e.g., i10), then 'c' or 'core' indicates a measurement was taken in the middle of the intersected crystal or 'nr' indicates a measurement was taken next to the specified melt inclusion (e.g., nr11.08) which are specified in Table H.4.

Table H.2: Pyroxene compositions ($n = 68$).

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	Cr ₂ O ₃	Wo	Fs	En
Etna231113Pyroxenes_m11	51.75	0.60	2.07	7.55	0.44	14.83	21.72	0.53	0.02	0.04	46.8	8.7	44.5
Etna231113Pyroxenes_m10	48.53	1.72	4.80	8.70	0.21	12.90	22.61	0.53	0.00	-0.01	50.9	8.7	40.4
Etna231113Pyroxenes_m9	50.30	0.95	3.41	7.07	0.21	14.54	22.73	0.28	0.01	0.03	49.0	7.5	43.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_m8	48.30	1.49	5.25	7.21	0.16	13.60	23.30	0.39	0.00	0.02	52.3	5.3	42.4
Etna231113Pyroxenes_m7	49.54	1.00	4.26	7.14	0.14	14.35	22.90	0.28	0.00	0.01	50.0	6.4	43.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_m6	47.39	1.56	5.91	7.55	0.11	13.13	23.35	0.37	0.00	0.01	53.2	5.2	41.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_m5	50.07	0.94	3.73	6.58	0.10	14.76	23.25	0.25	0.00	0.24	50.1	5.6	44.3
Etna231113Pyroxenes_m4	46.84	1.52	6.61	7.45	0.13	12.92	23.21	0.35	0.00	0.06	53.5	5.1	41.4
Etna231113Pyroxenes_m3	48.24	1.32	5.53	6.62	0.09	13.67	23.72	0.28	0.00	0.35	52.9	4.8	42.4
Etna231113Pyroxenes_m2	48.39	1.54	4.89	8.34	0.19	13.26	22.79	0.49	0.00	0.03	51.4	6.9	41.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l1	49.29	1.31	3.67	8.58	0.21	13.23	22.32	0.51	0.01	-0.05	49.7	9.3	41.0
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l2	47.98	1.52	5.32	7.46	0.16	13.39	22.94	0.35	0.01	0.03	51.6	6.5	41.9
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l3	45.35	2.08	7.59	7.92	0.11	12.24	23.02	0.34	0.01	0.27	54.2	5.7	40.1
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l4	49.56	1.15	4.50	6.85	0.13	14.09	23.36	0.26	0.01	0.04	50.8	6.6	42.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l6	48.10	1.78	5.05	8.82	0.20	12.52	22.49	0.55	0.00	0.00	51.1	9.3	39.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l7	48.80	1.42	4.67	8.00	0.19	13.20	22.35	0.49	0.00	0.00	50.1	8.8	41.2
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l8	47.79	1.58	5.50	8.16	0.15	12.93	22.70	0.44	0.00	0.01	51.6	7.5	40.9
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l9	49.47	1.12	4.56	6.80	0.12	13.98	22.95	0.27	0.01	0.04	50.1	7.5	42.4
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l11	49.73	1.05	4.04	6.84	0.13	14.28	23.22	0.24	0.01	0.16	50.3	6.7	43.0
Etna231113Pyroxenes_l12	48.52	1.49	4.82	8.46	0.19	13.06	22.45	0.55	0.00	0.00	50.8	8.1	41.1
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k12	50.40	1.22	3.43	7.36	0.28	14.38	22.25	0.56	0.00	0.02	48.7	7.5	43.8
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k11	49.72	1.25	3.46	8.01	0.21	13.94	22.10	0.44	0.00	0.01	48.6	8.8	42.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k10	50.00	1.04	3.79	7.13	0.15	14.57	22.92	0.34	0.01	0.03	49.8	6.1	44.1
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k9	48.54	1.24	5.06	7.75	0.18	13.65	22.67	0.40	0.01	-0.01	50.9	6.5	42.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k8	49.80	1.24	3.96	7.31	0.24	14.09	22.47	0.55	0.01	0.04	49.8	6.8	43.4
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k7	49.01	1.40	4.19	8.74	0.20	13.15	22.14	0.56	0.00	0.01	49.7	9.2	41.1
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k5	45.41	2.08	7.87	8.30	0.11	12.19	23.15	0.35	0.01	0.06	54.5	5.6	39.9
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k4	47.17	1.46	6.27	7.23	0.12	13.00	23.24	0.30	0.01	0.04	53.0	5.8	41.2
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k3	47.14	1.80	6.18	8.50	0.16	12.66	22.62	0.43	0.00	0.03	51.9	7.6	40.4

Table H.2: Pyroxene compositions ($n = 68$) *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	Cr ₂ O ₃	Wo	Fs	En
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k2	51.90	0.59	1.85	7.64	0.46	15.15	21.70	0.51	0.00	0.03	46.5	8.3	45.2
Etna231113Pyroxenes_k1	48.14	1.30	5.63	6.93	0.11	13.66	23.37	0.27	0.01	0.10	52.2	5.3	42.5
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j2	47.26	1.68	6.30	7.46	0.12	13.20	23.11	0.31	0.01	0.07	52.4	5.9	41.7
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j3	46.26	1.67	7.25	8.07	0.10	12.38	23.30	0.30	0.00	0.08	54.0	6.1	39.9
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j4	48.19	1.60	5.57	7.70	0.19	13.23	22.48	0.38	0.00	0.01	50.4	8.3	41.3
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j5	47.81	1.37	6.00	6.96	0.10	13.37	23.43	0.32	0.00	0.11	52.8	5.2	41.9
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j6	48.21	1.29	5.57	6.56	0.09	13.76	23.38	0.29	0.01	0.20	52.2	5.0	42.8
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j8	48.29	1.39	5.25	7.61	0.15	13.50	22.71	0.34	0.00	-0.03	50.8	7.1	42.0
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j9	48.48	1.49	4.79	8.58	0.22	12.96	22.26	0.50	0.00	0.00	50.2	9.1	40.7
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j10	47.21	1.96	5.86	8.81	0.20	12.43	22.19	0.50	0.00	0.00	51.1	9.2	39.8
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j13	49.55	1.28	3.95	8.50	0.25	13.66	21.60	0.65	0.00	0.01	48.5	8.9	42.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_j14	50.98	0.76	2.84	8.01	0.23	15.09	21.61	0.29	0.00	0.09	48.5	8.9	42.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i13	49.09	1.10	4.81	6.05	0.07	14.17	23.49	0.25	0.00	0.32	51.5	5.3	43.2
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i12	45.82	1.85	7.75	8.16	0.12	12.26	23.09	0.37	0.00	0.01	54.1	5.9	40.0
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i11	48.81	1.20	5.08	7.01	0.12	13.82	23.09	0.28	0.00	0.01	51.0	6.5	42.5
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i10	50.27	0.98	3.78	7.14	0.19	14.42	22.61	0.31	0.00	-0.01	48.8	7.9	43.3
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i9	47.30	1.95	5.84	8.68	0.17	12.40	22.47	0.50	0.00	0.02	51.5	8.9	39.6
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i7	49.24	1.34	4.16	8.41	0.17	13.34	22.17	0.52	0.01	0.00	49.4	9.2	41.4
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i4	49.35	1.30	3.97	8.23	0.22	13.55	22.23	0.46	0.00	0.00	49.2	9.0	41.7
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i3	48.14	1.42	5.53	7.34	0.12	13.40	22.91	0.35	0.00	0.06	51.4	6.8	41.8
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i2	49.77	1.29	3.83	9.07	0.24	13.42	21.48	0.60	0.01	0.03	47.8	10.7	41.5
Etna231113Pyroxenes_i1	47.64	1.84	5.46	8.79	0.20	12.59	22.12	0.50	0.01	0.06	50.6	9.4	40.0
CYAN_d2_nr52.74_Px	45.40	1.76	7.37	8.92	0.14	12.20	23.51	0.46	0.01	-0.04	56.2	3.2	40.6
CYAN_d2_nr36.66_Px	47.09	1.44	5.87	7.04	0.11	13.51	23.15	0.30	0.00	0.24	52.9	4.2	42.9
CYAN_d2_nr36.66_Px	47.46	1.34	5.84	6.91	0.13	13.56	22.94	0.32	0.00	0.29	52.2	4.9	42.9
CYAN_d2_core_Px	46.82	1.51	6.62	7.56	0.11	13.13	22.62	0.34	0.00	0.00	52.1	5.9	42.1
CYAN_c3_core_Px	48.53	1.19	4.45	7.75	0.15	13.64	22.65	0.42	0.00	0.04	50.9	6.4	42.7
CYAN_c1_mrML_Px	48.42	1.44	4.68	8.13	0.17	13.41	22.52	0.40	0.00	-0.02	50.5	7.7	41.8
CYAN_c1_core_Px	46.73	1.92	5.55	9.10	0.19	12.35	21.94	0.45	0.00	-0.02	50.8	9.4	39.8

Table H.2: Pyroxene compositions ($n = 68$) *cont.*

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	Cr ₂ O ₃	Wo	Fs	En
CYAN_b2_core_Px	50.45	0.79	2.79	8.03	0.29	13.97	22.15	0.56	0.00	0.02	48.8	8.4	42.8
CYAN_b3_nrMI_Px	46.80	1.60	6.18	7.32	0.10	12.98	22.84	0.33	0.01	0.01	52.5	6.0	41.5
CYAN_b3_core_Px	46.50	1.51	6.67	7.28	0.10	13.03	23.14	0.28	0.00	0.08	53.4	4.9	41.8
CYAN_b4_core_Px	47.04	1.65	5.79	8.59	0.18	12.68	22.30	0.48	0.00	0.00	51.6	7.5	40.8
CYAN_a4_core_Px	48.38	1.50	4.45	8.80	0.23	12.77	21.93	0.57	0.00	0.00	49.9	9.7	40.4
CYAN_a4_nrMI_Px	47.51	1.59	5.55	8.24	0.20	13.18	22.29	0.48	0.00	0.00	51.2	6.7	42.1
CYAN_a4_core_Px	48.39	1.53	4.43	8.64	0.20	13.27	21.89	0.57	0.00	0.03	49.8	8.3	42.0
CYAN_a2_core_Px	46.89	1.44	5.79	7.73	0.12	13.21	22.71	0.37	0.00	0.03	52.4	5.2	42.4
CYAN_a2_nr32.46_Px	47.24	1.33	5.65	8.03	0.12	13.19	22.78	0.38	0.02	0.02	52.4	5.4	42.2
CYAN_a2_nr26.28_Px	46.52	1.55	6.31	8.24	0.15	12.70	22.37	0.41	0.01	0.10	52.1	6.6	41.2

Notes: All oxides are in wt% measured using EPMA as described in Section 6.3.4. Wo, En, and Fs calculated using Equation 6.10.

Sample names denote the mount (e.g., CYAN), followed by the crystal (e.g., a4), then 'c' or 'core' indicates a measurement was taken in the middle of the intersected crystal or 'nr' indicates a measurement was taken next to the specified melt inclusion (e.g., nr26.28) which are specified in Table H.4.

Table H.3: Plagioclase inclusion compositions.

Sample	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	H ₂ O	An	Or	Ab
Etna231113Pyroxenes.j12	46.43	0.04	33.50	0.72	0.02	0.04	17.02	1.60	0.12		0.00	91.8	0.4	7.8
CYAN_c1_10um	48.30	0.21	30.08	1.47	0.02	0.24	15.00	2.87	0.52	0.08	1.15	83.8	1.7	14.5
CYAN_c3-53.80_10um	48.18	0.06	30.66	0.80	0.01	0.07	15.00	3.05	0.20	0.02	1.95	83.9	0.7	15.4
CYAN_c3-33.79_10um	47.73	0.03	31.64	0.72	0.00	0.06	16.02	2.62	0.18	0.03	0.97	86.6	0.6	12.8
CYAN_a4_10um	50.21	0.07	29.78	0.74	0.00	0.06	13.61	3.81	0.31	0.02	1.38	78.9	1.1	20.0

Notes: All oxides are in wt% measured using EPMA as described in Section 6.3.4. An, Or, and Ab calculated using Equation 6.11. Sample names denote the mount (e.g., CYAN), followed by the crystal (e.g., c1), then the beam size used for analysis. As plagioclase inclusions were analysed using the same set-up as glasses, the H₂O concentration is calculated.

Table H.4: Description of glass analyses ($n = 224$).

No.	Type	Host	Mount 1	Crystal 1	Inclusion 1	Mount 2	Crystal 2	Inclusion 2	Mount 3	Crystal 3	Fo	Wo	Fs	En
G001		Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	j11		BLUE	a2	28.37/36.66	CYAN	d2		52.2	4.9	42.9
G002	MI	Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	j11		BLUE	a2	73.76/52.74	CYAN	d2		56.2	3.2	40.6
G003	MI	Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	c7		BLUE	b1		CYAN	c3		50.9	6.4	42.7
G004		Olivine	Etna Pyroxene	c2		BLUE	b2		CYAN	c2	81.0			
G005	MI	Olivine	Etna Pyroxene	c2		BLUE	b2		CYAN	c2	79.3			
G006	MI	Olivine	Etna Pyroxene	c2		BLUE	b2	28.06	CYAN	c2	80.9			
G007	MI	Olivine	Etna Pyroxene	c2		BLUE	b2	43.74	CYAN	c2	80.9			
G008	MI	Olivine	Etna Pyroxene	c2		BLUE	b2	58.8	CYAN	c2	80.9			
G009	MI	Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	c10		BLUE	b3							
G010		Olivine	Etna Crystal	82		BLUE	b4		CYAN	g3				
G011	MI	Pyroxene	Etna Crystal	25		BLUE	b5		CYAN	c1		50.5	7.7	41.8
G012		Pyroxene	Etna Crystal	11		BLUE	c1	55.64	CYAN	b3		52.5	6.0	41.5
G013	MI	Olivine	Etna Ol	91		BLUE	h4	T	CYAN	e1	72.6			
G014	MI	Olivine	Etna Ol	91		BLUE	h4		CYAN	e1	72.7			
G015	MI	Olivine	Etna Ol	88		BLUE	h5	50.73	CYAN	g2	71.4			
G016	MI	Olivine	Etna Ol	46		BLUE	h6	30.75	CYAN	e5	79.4			
G017	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	3		BLUE	h7	48.41	CYAN	g6	80.7			
G018	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	3		BLUE	h7	43.25	CYAN	g6	81.0			
G019		Olivine	Etna Ol	25		BLUE	i2		CYAN	d4	76.1			
G020	MG	Olivine	Etna Ol	25		BLUE	i2		CYAN	d4	75.0			
G021	MG	Olivine	Etna Ol	25		BLUE	i2		CYAN	d4	75.5			
G022	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	21		BLUE	i3		CYAN	e7	81.1			
G023	MI	Pyroxene	Etna mm	18		BLUE	i4	24.42	CYAN	g1				
G024	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	17		BLUE	i5		CYAN	e3	71.8			
G025	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	16		BLUE	j1		CYAN	e2	72.9			
G026		Olivine	Etna mm	4		BLUE	j3		CYAN	f2	77.1			
G027	MI	Pyroxene	Etna mm	5		GREEN	c4		CYAN	h6				

Table H.4: Description of glass analyses ($n = 224$) *cont.*

No.	Type	Host	Mount 1	Crystal 1	Inclusion 1	Mount 2	Crystal 2	Inclusion 2	Mount 3	Crystal 3	Fo	Wo	Fs	En
G028	MI	Pyroxene	Etna mm	5		GREEN	c4	36.7	CYAN	h6				
G029		Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	d7		PINK	a2	48.25						
G030		Olivine	Etna Crystal	74		PINK	b2		CYAN	b2				
G031		Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	a5		PINK	b5	33.43						
G032		Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	a5		PINK	b5	35.14						
G033	MI	Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	e16		PINK	b6	32.46	CYAN	a2		52.4	5.4	42.2
G034	MI	Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	e16		PINK	b6	26.48	CYAN	a2		52.1	6.6	41.2
G035		Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	g8		PINK	b7	36.08	CYAN	b2		48.8	8.4	42.8
G036		Olivine	Etna mm	25		PINK	c3	50.83						
G037	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	22		PINK	c4	33.64	CYAN	h1	77.5			
G038	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	22		PINK	c4	29.24	CYAN	h1	77.5			
G039	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	22		PINK	c4		CYAN	h1	77.5			
G040	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	22		PINK	c4		CYAN	h1	78.3			
G041	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	22		PINK	c4		CYAN	h1	77.5			
G042	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	22		PINK	c4	23.4	CYAN	h1	77.5			
G043	MI		Etna mm	22		PINK	c4	25.99	CYAN	h1				
G044	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	19		PINK	c5	52.92	CYAN	h2	71.2			
G045	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	19		PINK	c5	41.54	CYAN	h2	70.1			
G046		Olivine	Etna mm	14		PINK	c6	46.06	CYAN	h3	78.6			
G047	MI	Olivine	Etna mm	2		PINK	c7	46.04	CYAN	h4	72.9			
G048	MI	Pyroxene	Etna Pyroxene	b8		PINK	d3	30.72	CYAN	i1				
G049	MI	Olivine							CYAN	a3	77.7			
G050	MI	Olivine	Etna A	g2		Red	d				78.8			
G051	MI	Olivine	Etna A	g2		Red	d				78.7			
G052	MI	Olivine				Red	e1				74.8			
G053	MI	Olivine				Red	e1				74.8			
G054	MI	Olivine				Red	e1				74.8			
G055	MI	Olivine				Red	e3				79.6			
G056	MI	Olivine	Etna A	h7		Red	g				78.4			

Table H.4: Description of glass analyses ($n = 224$) *cont.*

No.	Type	Host	Mount 1	Crystal 1	Inclusion 1	Mount 2	Crystal 2	Inclusion 2	Mount 3	Crystal 3	Fo	Wo	Fs	En
G057	MI	Olivine	Etna A	i12		Red	h				81.9			
G058	MI	Olivine	Etna A	i12		Red	h				81.4			
G059	MI	Olivine				Red	17				75.7			
G060	MI	Olivine				Red	17				75.5			
G061	MI	Olivine				Red	n				81.8			
G062	MG	Olivine				Red	n				81.6			
G063	MI	Olivine				Red	n				81.6			
G064	MI	Olivine				Red	n				81.6			
G065	MI	Olivine				Red	r1				80.9			
G066	MI		Etna 231113 Olivine	a1	14.71									
G067			Etna 231113 Olivine	a1	14.77									
G068	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a2	32.09						67.0			
G069	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a2	30.98						67.1			
G070	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a6	36.26						74.7			
G071	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a9	11.79						70.4			
G072	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a11	12.05						80.5			
G073	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a11	25.48						80.4			
G074	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a12							81.5			
G075	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a12	41.76						80.9			
G076	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a13	20.69						74.3			
G077	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a17	61.31						73.9			
G078	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a18							72.7			
G079	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a18	33.42						71.8			
G080	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	a18	19.8						72.0			
G081	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	b1	25.38						72.1			
G082	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	b4	9.42						76.3			
G083	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	b4	7.55						76.4			
G084	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	b5							73.8			
G085	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	b7	88.25						82.0			

Table H.4: Description of glass analyses ($n = 224$) *cont.*

No.	Type	Host	Mount 1	Crystal 1	Inclusion 1	Mount 2	Crystal 2	Inclusion 2	Mount 3	Crystal 3	Fo	Wo	Fs	En
G086	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	b7	26.27						81.8			
G087	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	b7	41.65						81.9			
G088	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	b10	37.9						78.7			
G089	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	b14	37.53						77.4			
G090	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c1	27.78									
G091	MG		Etna 231113 Olivine	c1	38.01									
G092	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c2	10.64						79.1			
G093	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c2	18.04									
G094	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c3	20.07						76.5			
G095	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c6	38.15						76.2			
G096	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c6	31.95						76.2			
G097	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c6							76.2			
G098	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c10	45.28						81.2			
G099	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c10	45.06						81.0			
G100	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c10							81.4			
G101	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c12	1						73.1			
G102	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c12	2						79.6			
G103	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c12	3						72.5			
G104	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c12	4						66.5			
G105	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c14	20.12						77.4			
G106	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	c14	13.62						76.7			
G107	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	d6	50.99						80.9			
G108	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	d7	19.13						80.8			
G109	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	d8	9.4						77.9			
G110	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	d9	29.05						72.1			
G111	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	d11	1						80.6			
G112	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	d11	2						79.9			
G113	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	d13	26.61						77.8			
G114	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	d13	31.23						76.7			

Table H.4: Description of glass analyses ($n = 224$) *cont.*

No.	Type	Host	Mount 1	Crystal 1	Inclusion 1	Mount 2	Crystal 2	Inclusion 2	Mount 3	Crystal 3	Fo	Wo	Fs	En
G115	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	d13							78.6			
G116	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	d15	1						73.3			
G117	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e5	1						82.3			
G118	MI	Oxide	Etna 231113 Olivine	e6	22.76									
G119		Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e7	1									
G120	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e7	2						77.3			
G121	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e7	3						77.3			
G122	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e7	4						76.3			
G123	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e7	5						77.1			
G124	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e7	6						75.9			
G125	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e7	59.12						77.4			
G126	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e7	24.99						77.3			
G127	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e7	30.7						76.5			
G128	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e9	45.28						70.4			
G129	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e11	22.41						79.7			
G130	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e11	14.42						79.5			
G131	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e11	15.16						78.8			
G132	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e11	12.48						78.7			
G133	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e14	64.18						76.3			
G134	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e14	35.96						75.7			
G135	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e14	39.45						73.0			
G136	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	e14	30.42						78.6			
G137			Etna 231113 Olivine	e16	18.31									
G138	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	f3	19.95						72.1			
G139	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	f4	31.84						75.6			
G140	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	f5	11.15						70.7			
G141	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	f10	27.72						79.1			
G142	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	f10	12.99						79.8			
G143	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	f10	19.51						79.1			

Table H.4: Description of glass analyses ($n = 224$) *cont.*

No.	Type	Host	Mount 1	Crystal 1	Inclusion 1	Mount 2	Crystal 2	Inclusion 2	Mount 3	Crystal 3	Fo	Wo	Fs	En
G144	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	f12	21.26						77.6			
G145	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g3	21.25						79.3			
G146	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g3	43.05						79.6			
G147	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g3	35.69						80.1			
G148	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g3	30.15						80.9			
G149	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g4	16.76						79.1			
G150	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g4	19.99						78.0			
G151	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g5	44.09						81.0			
G152	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g7	16.01									
G153	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g8	21.49						72.1			
G154	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g8	16.21						72.1			
G155	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g13	2						76.5			
G156	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g13	1						77.0			
G157	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g13	32.95						77.2			
G158	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g13	67.67						77.4			
G159	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	g13	77.33						78.4			
G160	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h4	20.57						75.2			
G161	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h4	20.47						76.0			
G162	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h4	19.42						76.7			
G163	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h8	39.82						74.2			
G164	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h9	8.73						80.0			
G165	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h9	12.64						79.0			
G166	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h9	16.38						80.0			
G167		Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h9	n.d.									
G168	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h12	25.66						79.1			
G169	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h12	38.8						78.7			
G170	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h12	54.73						78.6			
G171	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h13	10.06						70.9			
G172	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h13	15.23						72.3			

Table H.4: Description of glass analyses ($n = 224$) *cont.*

No.	Type	Host	Mount 1	Crystal 1	Inclusion 1	Mount 2	Crystal 2	Inclusion 2	Mount 3	Crystal 3	Fo	Wo	Fs	En
G173	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h13	18.8						71.4			
G174	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h13	10.32						71.0			
G175	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h13	91.38						71.6			
G176	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	h13	23.71						71.0			
G177			Etna 231113 Olivine	h15	27.3									
G178	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i2	34.42						72.5			
G179	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i2	31.09						74.0			
G180	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i2	25.01						74.3			
G181	MG	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i2							70.7			
G182	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i3	20.32						79.9			
G183	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i3	12.77						78.4			
G184	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i6	17.66						78.6			
G185	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i8	14.35						72.9			
G186	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i8	12.47						76.4			
G187	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i10	52.88						77.8			
G188	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i10	22.33						77.8			
G189			Etna 231113 Olivine	i10	31.66									
G190	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i11	33.92						68.6			
G191	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i12	26.65						80.7			
G192	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i12	14.31						80.4			
G193	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	i12	9.42						79.6			
G194	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	j4	43.22						75.9			
G195	MI	Olivine	Etna 231113 Olivine	j8	11.08						76.8			
G196		Olivine	EtnaOIA	f1	33.61									
G197		Olivine	EtnaOIA	f2	63.09									
G198		Olivine	EtnaOIA	f3	44.41									
G199		Olivine	EtnaOIA	g2	40.28									
G200		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h10	57.28									
G201		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h11	109.67									

Table H.4: Description of glass analyses ($n = 224$) *cont.*

No.	Type	Host	Mount 1	Crystal 1	Inclusion 1	Mount 2	Crystal 2	Inclusion 2	Mount 3	Crystal 3	Fo	Wo	Fs	En
G202		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h11	54.84									
G203		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h11	57.49									
G204		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h11	63.09									
G205		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h11	66.17									
G206		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h11	71.76									
G207		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h2	43.46									
G208		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h3	54.7									
G209		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h7	39.95									
G210		Olivine	EtnaOIA	h9	40.47									
G211		Olivine	EtnaOIA	i12	52.31									
G212		Olivine	EtnaOIA	i12	80.32									
G213		Olivine	EtnaOIB	a1	28.76						82.2			
G214		Olivine	EtnaOIB	b2	31.2						71.1			
G215		Olivine	EtnaOIB	b2	48.37						71.1			
G216		Olivine	EtnaOIB	f9	39.66						78.9			
G217		Olivine	EtnaOIB	g4	38.12						77.0			
G218		Olivine	EtnaOIB	h11	30.98									
G219		Olivine	EtnaOIB	h2	28.86									
G220		Olivine	EtnaOIB	h8	40.63									
G221		Olivine	EtnaOIB	h8	82.89									
G222		Olivine	EtnaOIB	i14	33.72									
G223		Olivine	EtnaOIB	j13	55.89									
G224		Olivine	EtnaOIB	j14	43.46									

Notes: No. is the unique identifier for each glass (G) analysis. Type refers to melt inclusion (MI), matrix glass (MG), or blank if not noted. As crystals were remounted multiple times, the sample name (mount, crystal, inclusion number) for each mount is given for comparing with Tables H.1 and H.2. Fo (if olivine) and Wo/En/Fs (if pyroxene) are given where measured (Tables H.1 and H.2).

Table H.5: Raman data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass ($n = 129$).

No.	H ₂ O (wt%)	<i>s.d.</i>	Nanolites	N#	<i>s.d.</i>	No.	H ₂ O (wt%)	<i>s.d.</i>	Nanolites	N#	<i>s.d.</i>
G066			N			G150			Y		
G067			Y	1.37	0.07	G151	1.42		N	0.81	0.06
G068	2.54		N	0.92	0.06	G152			N		
G069	3.00		N	1.23	0.28	G153			N		
G070			Y	1.81	0.17	G155			Y	1.14	0.05
G071			N			G156			Y		
G072			N			G158			Y	1.09	0.07
G073	2.73		N	0.93	0.08	G160			N		
G074			Y			G161			N		
G075			Y	2.38	0.09	G163			Y	1.52	0.07
G076			Y	2.09	0.14	G166			N		
G077	0.05		N	0.75	0.05	G167	3.96		N	1.08	0.14
G078	2.10		N	0.75	0.03	G168			Y	2.08	0.16
G079			Y			G169			Y	2.61	0.26
G080			Y	5.78	0.43	G170			Y	2.48	0.08
G081			Y			G175	0.43		N	0.86	0.08
G085			Y	2.12	0.11	G176			N		
G086	3.20		N	0.71	0.08	G177			Y		
G087			N			G178	0.92		N	0.81	0.08
G088	0.97		N	0.86	0.03	G182			Y	1.21	0.06
G089			Y	3.07	0.23	G183			Y	2.13	0.06
G090	2.91		N	1.18	0.08	G184			N		
G091			Y	1.19	0.09	G186			N		
G093			N			G187			Y	2.84	0.18
G094			Y	3.09	0.19	G188			Y		
G095			Y	1.63	0.08	G189			Y	1.84	0.11
G096			Y	1.50	0.08	G191	2.78		N	0.75	0.05
G097			N			G192			N		
G098			N			G193			N		
G099			Y	2.03	0.10	G194	0.55		N	0.93	0.06
G100	4.06		N	0.71	0.04	G196			Y	1.31	0.08
G101			N			G197	4.63	0.23	N	0.80	0.02
G102			Y	3.23	0.17	G198			Y	1.50	0.11
G103			N			G199			Y	2.67	0.16
G104			N			G200			Y	2.96	0.23
G105			N			G201			Y	1.52	0.07
G106	3.16		N	1.04	0.04	G202			Y	1.34	0.06
G107			Y			G203	3.25	0.16	N	0.82	0.01
G110			N			G204			Y	1.09	0.04
G111			N			G205			Y	1.08	0.05
G112			N			G206	2.91	0.14	N	0.78	0.03
G113	0.39		N	0.77	0.03	G207	1.33	0.07	N	0.74	0.03
G114	0.23		N	0.85	0.02	G208			Y	2.27	0.15
G116			Y	1.07	0.04	G209	4.93	0.24	N	0.75	0.03
G117			N			G210			Y	1.08	0.07

Table H.5: Raman data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass ($n = 129$) *cont.*

No.	H ₂ O (wt%)	<i>s.d.</i>	Nanolites	N#	<i>s.d.</i>	No.	H ₂ O (wt%)	<i>s.d.</i>	Nanolites	N#	<i>s.d.</i>
G118	2.40		N	0.87	<i>0.05</i>	G211			Y	2.81	<i>0.24</i>
G119	0.77		N	0.88	<i>0.08</i>	G212			Y	3.38	<i>0.29</i>
G120			N			G213			Y	1.80	<i>0.08</i>
G121	0.96		N	1.21	<i>0.06</i>	G214			Y	1.26	<i>0.03</i>
G122	0.88		N	1.02	<i>0.13</i>	G215			Y	2.31	<i>0.15</i>
G123			Y	1.37	<i>0.08</i>	G216			Y	2.43	<i>0.13</i>
G124	0.75		N	1.14	<i>0.03</i>	G217			Y	1.56	<i>0.08</i>
G130	2.26		N	0.72	<i>0.08</i>	G218			Y	1.49	<i>0.08</i>
G135			N			G219			Y	6.70	<i>0.79</i>
G137			N			G220			Y	1.68	<i>0.12</i>
G138			Y	1.63	<i>0.14</i>	G221			Y	3.70	<i>0.31</i>
G141			Y	1.16	<i>0.08</i>	G222			Y	1.48	<i>0.06</i>
G143			Y	1.52	<i>0.09</i>	G223			Y	1.40	<i>0.13</i>
G146			Y	1.14	<i>0.07</i>	G224			Y	1.21	<i>0.06</i>
G147			Y	1.61	<i>0.08</i>						

Notes: No. is the unique identifier for each glass (G) analysis (Table H.4). Raman data collected as described in Section 6.3.2. H₂O concentration calculated using Equation 6.8 and the empirical calibrations in Figure 6.8. Nanolites refers to a manual inspection of the Raman spectrum to ascertain if nanolites were present using the presence (Y) or absence (N) of a peak at $\sim 670\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Section 6.3.2). N# is the degree of nanolitisation defined by Di Genova et al. (2018) using Equation 6.7. Errors of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) shown in *italics*.

Table H.6: SIMS data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass ($n = 49$).

No.	SIMS-4f CO ₂			SIMS-4f H ₂ O			SIMS-1270							
	MgO	CO ₂ ^a	CaO	H ₂ O	Li ^a	F ^a	Mg	Cl ^a	K ₂ O	CaO	TiO ₂	δD^b	H ₂ O ^c	H ₂ O ^d
G001	4.81	153	6.53	2.93	31	1153	2.91	1856	2.68	6.84	1.54	-43.4	3.24	2.64
G002	4.03	182	6.15	2.30	22	1200	2.52	1627	3.38	6.40	1.52	-47.1	2.37	2.18
G004	3.30	387	7.85	2.21	9	1342	2.69	2065	2.89	9.28	1.90			
G005	3.24	10	6.94	0.93	15	1232	2.30	1679	3.45	6.95	1.84			
G006												-74.9	0.50	0.37
G008												-43.4	1.11	0.90
G010	4.64	100	6.93	2.17	14	1182	2.88	1670	3.18	7.36	1.32			
G011	5.53	248	7.25	0.16	7	646	5.26	435	1.89	12.24	1.52			
G012	2.45	89	4.63	2.32	15	1097	2.20	1354	3.54	5.76	1.42	-73.3	2.44	2.16
G013*	3.60	457	5.44	2.24	19	1450	2.07	1405	4.59	5.56	1.32	-36.1	1.98	6.18
G014	6.93	1602	7.77	0.79	8	703	6.16	664	1.60	13.37	0.88			
G015	3.32	132	5.31	2.35	20	1544	1.99	1397	4.23	5.42	1.38			
G016												-15.0	1.44	1.02
G017	4.48	652	7.55	2.26	9	1300	2.97	2045	3.10	8.94	1.90	-14.5	2.60	1.40
G018												-1.6	2.69	1.68
G019	5.58	52	7.07	0.76	15	1199	5.46	1685	3.22	6.76	1.68	-28.9	0.66	0.57
G022	3.90	62	7.75	3.07	10	1167	2.40	1877	2.74	8.37	1.85	-16.9	3.34	7.17
G023	2.36	64	3.86	1.03	24	929	1.52	2860	7.93	4.04	1.92			

Table H.6: SIMS data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass ($n = 49$) *cont.*

No.	SIMS-4f CO ₂			SIMS-4f H ₂ O				SIMS-1270						
	MgO	CO ₂ ^a	CaO	H ₂ O	Li ^a	F ^a	Mg	Cl ^a	K ₂ O	CaO	TiO ₂	δD ^b	H ₂ O ^c	H ₂ O ^d
G024	3.52	207	5.37	2.08	17	1483	2.22	1746	3.81	5.26	1.36	-39.9	2.23	1.35
G025	3.44	65	5.73	2.11	18	1274	2.03	1153	4.12	5.47	1.62	-29.1	2.09	1.70
G026												-13.0	2.30	1.72
G027	5.04	112	7.17	0.95	8	574	5.84	779	1.64	13.23	1.56			
G029												-56.9	1.99	0.93
G030												-18.0	1.42	0.98
G031												-36.0	1.27	0.25
G033	2.73	235	5.03	0.67	5	1289	2.76	2067	3.87	6.20	1.62			
G034	2.83	151	5.42	0.73	17	941	3.71	1677	2.06	8.28	1.27			
G036												-32.2	2.69	2.35
G037	3.86	121	7.69	0.47	9	899	10.01	1522	2.54	6.94	1.07	-36.3	0.58	0.39
G038												-56.6	0.62	0.25
G043	3.87	154	6.10	0.57	13	1180	8.10	1670	3.13	5.43	1.01			
G044	2.86	198	5.15	2.32	21	1367	2.08	1800	3.36	4.70	1.68	-53.8	2.10	2.37
G046	3.13	543	7.10	1.56	9	841	12.38	1103	2.11	5.38	1.21	-39.6	2.30	1.92
G047												-37.8	2.32	1.88
G048	3.28	121	6.57	2.38	22	1311	2.64	1614	3.26	6.55	1.76			
G049	3.40	97	7.08	1.58	14	1183	2.70	1601	3.30	7.11	1.80			
G050	4.11	46	7.30	0.34	12	1301	2.34	1789	3.16	7.29	1.95			
G051	3.90	41	7.52	0.10	13	931	2.39	1413	3.18	7.41	1.95			
G052	4.22	225	6.27	2.15	13	1022	2.32	1576	3.24	6.09	1.66			
G055	3.52	56	7.23	1.15	18	1275	2.48	1651	3.58	7.98	1.96			
G056	4.10	31	6.60	2.21	12	1152	2.66	1476	3.19	6.76	1.83			
G057	4.88	1108	7.22	2.79	9	1249	3.15	1933	3.05	9.05	1.95			
G058	4.68	611	7.13	2.86	9	1381	2.96	1906	2.90	8.63	1.90			
G059	7.62	23	6.18	1.86	12	1003	6.10	1131	2.64	6.05	1.29			
G060	3.82	28	6.87	2.26	14	1290	2.30	1576	2.90	6.99	1.44			
G061	3.93	986	7.79	0.32	7	437	3.45	165	0.82	8.29	2.37			
G062	4.20	163	7.57	0.26	11	995	2.71	1311	3.26	7.61	1.90			
G063	5.99	52	6.68	2.03	12	1084	3.37	1338	3.18	6.70	1.76			
G065	3.57	551	7.98	1.92	9	1184	2.69	1755	2.99	9.70	1.93			

Notes: No. is the unique identifier for each glass (G) analysis (Table H.4). SIMS data collected as described in Section 6.3.3. Elements/oxides are given in wt%, except ^a which are in ppm and ^b which are in ‰. ^c is H₂O concentration using ¹H₂⁺/¹H⁺ and ^d is H₂O concentration using ¹H⁺/PB. G013* has δ¹³C of -5.27 ± 2.4 ‰.

Table H.7: EPMA data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass ($n = 169$).

No.	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	Cl	S	F	Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	s.d.	VBD	s.d.
G001	46.53	1.50	15.94	9.04	0.16	4.82	9.60	3.66	1.80	0.62	0.1754	0.2871	0.1139			3.42	0.35
G002	46.02	1.47	16.85	8.98	0.19	4.25	9.33	5.02	2.34	0.66	0.1723	0.2810	0.1307			2.47	0.35
G004	43.45	1.83	16.97	9.66	0.16	4.17	12.73	3.56	1.99	0.53	0.1651	0.3440	0.0945			2.47	0.37
G005	46.49	1.78	16.82	9.98	0.21	3.49	9.91	4.28	2.47	0.69	0.1505	0.1278	0.0937			1.89	0.38
G010	46.37	1.15	15.86	10.99	0.21	4.21	9.90	3.94	2.41	0.66	0.1682	0.1748	0.1308	0.84	0.09	2.35	0.15
G012	46.87	1.66	16.53	10.36	0.23	3.42	8.45	3.84	2.40	0.76	0.2013	0.1790	0.1342	0.67	0.08	3.00	0.14
G013	49.12	1.28	15.32	9.93	0.23	3.42	7.75	4.56	3.28	0.97	0.1608	0.0901	0.1286	0.60	0.07	2.15	0.13
G014	49.05	0.99	15.85	10.20	0.22	2.98	8.35	4.08	2.75	0.79	0.2004	0.1256	0.1445	0.47	0.06	2.37	0.13
G015	50.55	1.39	15.52	9.53	0.21	3.10	7.56	4.69	2.95	0.88	0.1604	0.0482	0.1496	0.76	0.09	1.94	0.14
G016	46.52	1.69	16.56	10.14	0.19	3.89	9.88	4.28	2.42	0.67	0.1495	0.1682	0.1072			1.79	0.38
G017	43.58	1.78	16.98	9.76	0.15	4.69	12.23	3.59	2.13	0.60	0.1735	0.3294	0.1108	0.67	0.08	2.29	0.14
G019	46.51	1.72	16.99	10.67	0.19	3.49	10.35	4.58	2.49	0.67	0.1612	0.1682	0.0965	0.69	0.08	0.97	0.14
G020	46.69	1.74	17.04	10.57	0.20	3.35	10.33	4.20	2.40	0.64	0.1574	0.1704	0.0892			1.17	0.39
G021	46.71	1.79	17.07	10.06	0.20	3.51	10.08	4.42	2.49	0.67	0.1669	0.1607	0.1115			1.27	0.38
G022	44.47	1.81	16.56	9.78	0.17	3.58	11.77	3.11	1.87	0.54	0.1834	0.2612	0.1011	0.63	0.07	3.53	0.14
G023	50.23	1.95	15.87	9.70	0.20	2.34	5.55	5.01	5.29	1.05	0.3485	0.0777	0.0997	0.73	0.08	1.27	0.13
G024	49.41	1.37	14.48	10.42	0.23	3.40	7.54	4.66	2.68	0.92	0.1947	0.0248	0.1173	0.64	0.07	2.69	0.14
G025	49.88	1.62	15.66	9.31	0.21	2.84	7.81	4.67	3.02	0.84	0.1265	0.0467	0.1368	0.80	0.09	2.35	0.14
G027	49.45	1.54	17.96	9.53	0.22	2.45	7.20	4.35	2.98	0.79	0.2343	0.1917	0.1279	0.75	0.08	1.74	0.14
G028	48.77	1.66	18.35	8.47	0.21	2.17	7.96	4.38	2.46	0.69	0.2191	0.2380	0.1103			2.49	0.33
G033	45.99	1.61	17.14	11.21	0.22	3.10	6.41	5.37	3.14	1.06	0.3035	0.0732	0.1477	0.60	0.05	2.37	0.14
G034	45.46	1.32	16.68	13.84	0.25	3.18	6.70	5.03	1.88	0.66	0.2868	0.0645	0.0884	0.53	0.06	2.57	0.13
G037	45.75	1.36	17.88	10.20	0.18	3.28	12.53	4.07	2.31	0.61	0.1842	0.1850	0.1278			0.46	0.36
G038	47.14	1.12	18.80	9.90	0.19	3.45	9.05	4.96	2.76	0.80	0.2208	0.1462	0.1732			0.44	0.34
G039	43.78	1.61	17.08	11.23	0.21	4.16	12.91	3.70	2.03	0.59	0.1738	0.2044	0.0907			1.01	0.41
G040	44.53	1.36	16.74	11.39	0.19	3.70	12.40	4.16	2.39	0.71	0.1933	0.2323	0.1429			0.75	0.41
G041	45.32	1.33	17.38	10.47	0.19	4.16	12.48	3.96	2.18	0.67	0.1792	0.1734	0.1397			0.47	0.37
G042	44.89	1.38	17.41	10.77	0.19	3.55	12.52	4.01	2.26	0.65	0.1918	0.1955	0.1056			0.80	0.39
G044	50.79	1.67	15.24	9.75	0.24	3.03	6.49	4.75	2.46	0.88	0.2304	0.1043	0.1274	0.81	0.09	2.61	0.14

Table H.7: EPMA data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass ($n = 169$) *cont.*

No.	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	Cl	S	F	Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	s.d.	VBD	s.d.
G046	44.51	1.84	17.79	9.41	0.16	3.46	11.95	3.64	2.15	0.59	0.1852	0.2994	0.1325	0.66	0.08	2.29	0.14
G048	48.41	1.81	16.97	9.16	0.20	3.85	8.77	3.96	2.43	0.75	0.1886	0.1667	0.1307			1.74	0.35
G049	46.93	1.82	16.98	9.67	0.18	3.26	9.93	4.43	2.48	0.68	0.1635	0.1689	0.1526	0.70	0.08	1.81	0.14
G050	47.87	1.89	17.42	10.01	0.19	3.57	9.89	3.99	2.23	0.70	0.1429	0.1540	0.0867			0.81	0.37
G051	47.94	1.92	17.52	9.82	0.18	3.57	9.92	4.12	2.38	0.74	0.1381	0.1541	0.1315	0.55	0.07	0.60	0.13
G052	48.73	1.65	16.23	10.00	0.22	3.82	8.40	4.20	2.25	0.64	0.1621	0.0687	0.0726			1.94	0.38
G053	48.41	1.61	16.13	10.07	0.20	3.87	8.55	4.25	2.27	0.70	0.1536	0.0646	0.0842			1.98	0.38
G054	48.62	1.61	16.35	10.23	0.21	3.69	8.44	3.86	2.26	0.65	0.1521	0.0676	0.0616			2.07	0.39
G055	46.50	1.79	16.80	10.21	0.19	3.55	10.16	4.75	2.41	0.69	0.1727	0.1542	0.0872			1.25	0.38
G056	46.21	1.80	16.65	10.03	0.19	4.12	9.49	3.95	2.27	0.62	0.1531	0.1922	0.0962			2.38	0.38
G057	43.30	1.91	16.17	9.61	0.15	5.02	12.47	3.37	2.00	0.54	0.1503	0.3421	0.1132	0.52	0.07	2.82	0.14
G058	43.44	1.82	16.57	9.53	0.17	4.27	12.19	3.19	1.87	0.57	0.1675	0.3169	0.0604	0.51	0.07	3.47	0.13
G059	46.77	1.43	16.57	10.57	0.24	3.78	9.43	3.76	2.03	0.70	0.1599	0.1889	0.0910			2.39	0.40
G060	46.76	1.39	16.26	10.82	0.23	3.66	9.73	3.71	2.04	0.70	0.1536	0.1951	0.0911			2.38	0.41
G061	43.61	1.94	16.55	9.38	0.15	3.93	12.42	3.09	2.05	0.56	0.1780	0.3422	0.1124			3.37	0.36
G062	47.07	1.81	16.86	10.16	0.20	4.25	10.11	4.21	2.36	0.70	0.1325	0.1472	0.1171	0.53	0.07	0.83	0.13
G063	46.66	1.74	16.43	9.79	0.17	3.72	9.66	4.32	2.32	0.67	0.1532	0.1439	0.1468	0.68	0.08	2.42	0.14
G064	46.89	1.74	16.53	9.70	0.19	4.08	9.39	4.44	2.35	0.67	0.1516	0.1443	0.0518			2.02	0.37
G065	42.88	1.86	16.84	9.79	0.15	4.10	12.98	3.51	2.05	0.53	0.1629	0.3393	0.1368			2.68	0.38
G066	48.17	1.65	17.37	9.04	0.17	1.82	10.59	4.55	2.07	0.72	0.1655	0.1704				2.37	0.41
G068	53.74	0.90	14.83	9.69	0.26	2.46	5.25	5.97	2.95	1.17	0.2861	0.0417		1.08	0.07	2.05	0.13
G069	53.39	0.81	15.11	9.81	0.25	2.71	5.52	6.37	2.75	0.78	0.2291	0.0171		0.98	0.07	1.84	0.14
G070	46.78	1.36	16.43	11.10	0.24	3.91	9.83	3.97	1.92	0.56	0.1611	0.2196				2.30	0.50
G071	51.70	1.24	16.17	9.01	0.19	2.23	7.49	5.09	3.11	0.82	0.2414	0.0848				1.77	0.44
G072	43.57	2.05	17.64	9.44	0.16	2.37	13.02	3.82	1.99	0.56	0.1955	0.3340				3.29	0.41
G073	44.04	2.00	17.13	9.73	0.17	3.79	12.48	3.49	1.90	0.56	0.1730	0.3085				2.85	0.43
G074	43.92	2.01	17.68	9.12	0.14	3.49	12.54	3.52	2.09	0.57	0.1945	0.3592				2.95	0.41
G075	47.24	1.91	17.21	9.95	0.18	3.62	9.98	4.34	2.53	0.69	0.1578	0.1577		0.67	0.07	1.45	0.15
G076	50.38	1.49	16.71	9.21	0.19	3.05	7.43	4.51	2.92	0.79	0.2496	0.0970				2.00	0.43

Table H.7: EPMA data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass ($n = 169$) *cont.*

No.	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	Cl	S	F	Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	s.d.	VBD	s.d.
G077	48.91	1.86	17.10	9.99	0.19	3.55	8.08	5.15	3.12	0.85	0.1822	0.0384				0.61	0.80
G078	47.82	1.82	16.94	9.78	0.17	4.05	9.04	4.24	2.33	0.69	0.1535	0.0986				1.89	0.46
G079	46.76	1.79	16.72	10.25	0.20	4.09	9.78	4.18	2.23	0.68	0.1482	0.1496				2.00	0.48
G080	50.34	1.49	16.17	9.99	0.20	3.30	7.01	4.75	2.77	0.79	0.1572	0.0957		0.80	0.07	2.18	0.13
G081	46.35	1.41	17.55	9.94	0.19	4.35	10.59	3.50	2.21	0.60	0.1872	0.2310		0.83	0.07	2.17	0.13
G082	48.89	1.35	17.45	8.70	0.15	1.97	10.35	4.52	2.13	0.63	0.1507	0.1712				2.42	0.40
G083	48.80	1.35	17.76	8.39	0.16	2.00	10.78	4.50	2.05	0.55	0.1391	0.1762				2.28	0.39
G084	48.12	1.93	17.38	9.43	0.19	3.59	9.20	4.70	2.91	0.68	0.1505	0.0849				1.07	0.53
G085	44.41	1.85	15.74	9.60	0.16	4.71	11.76	3.31	1.78	0.51	0.1708	0.3266		0.87	0.07	4.12	0.12
G086	44.38	2.01	16.73	8.03	0.14	2.24	15.13	3.53	1.12	0.59	0.1834	0.3660				3.81	0.35
G087	44.13	1.96	16.79	8.68	0.15	3.05	13.30	3.40	1.80	0.58	0.1779	0.3514				3.84	0.38
G088	46.98	1.79	16.85	9.94	0.18	4.03	9.45	4.85	2.45	0.67	0.1494	0.1637				1.65	0.48
G089	47.04	1.73	17.20	9.20	0.19	4.08	9.70	4.21	0.92	0.19	0.1625	0.0417				3.62	0.40
G092	44.66	2.04	17.79	9.11	0.13	2.37	12.65	3.52	1.83	0.53	0.1690	0.2562				3.35	0.40
G094	48.81	1.56	17.57	9.41	0.16	3.61	8.22	4.26	2.45	0.69	0.2138	0.1672				1.92	0.45
G095	49.29	1.01	15.89	10.76	0.26	3.71	8.22	4.08	2.43	0.68	0.1867	0.1273				2.21	0.49
G096	48.97	1.12	15.31	11.22	0.25	3.95	9.14	3.94	2.18	0.64	0.1762	0.1303				1.93	0.53
G097	49.84	1.25	15.15	10.83	0.26	3.33	8.12	4.42	2.38	0.67	0.2008	0.1194				2.24	0.49
G098	44.52	1.89	16.11	9.44	0.17	4.13	12.06	3.22	1.92	0.55	0.1804	0.3225		0.92	0.07	4.03	0.12
G099	44.25	1.85	15.88	10.04	0.16	4.68	12.06	3.11	1.81	0.52	0.1448	0.3027		0.76	0.07	3.69	0.13
G100	44.21	2.03	16.76	9.16	0.14	3.04	13.11	3.53	1.90	0.54	0.1874	0.3508				3.41	0.40
G101	48.32	1.29	13.69	11.73	0.25	2.25	11.99	3.39	1.80	0.54	0.2115	0.2638				2.81	0.52
G102	46.65	1.85	17.41	10.10	0.18	3.56	9.96	4.25	2.27	0.59	0.1639	0.1704				1.88	0.48
G103	47.81	1.40	13.39	12.29	0.26	2.28	12.47	3.41	1.77	0.53	0.2267	0.2694				2.52	0.55
G104	47.10	1.78	17.28	9.59	0.19	2.71	10.91	3.88	1.99	0.57	0.1868	0.1928				2.44	0.44
G105	47.75	1.80	17.10	9.66	0.20	3.44	9.26	4.75	2.39	0.65	0.1874	0.1500				1.76	0.47
G106	43.99	1.84	16.91	11.25	0.21	6.27	10.91	3.51	1.85	0.55	0.1522	0.2868				1.44	0.56
G107	44.56	1.84	17.58	9.45	0.14	4.50	12.00	3.63	1.97	0.59	0.1677	0.2824		0.84	0.07	2.45	0.13
G108	46.17	1.97	18.64	8.14	0.13	2.36	11.92	4.09	2.20	0.58	0.1696	0.2468				2.33	0.38

Table H.7: EPMA data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass ($n = 169$) *cont.*

No.	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	Cl	S	F	Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	s.d.	VBD	s.d.
G109	48.12	2.16	18.53	8.39	0.18	2.39	8.76	4.76	2.98	0.90	0.2184	0.1916				1.63	0.42
G110	50.17	1.26	16.67	10.11	0.23	2.80	8.27	4.88	2.27	0.70	0.1681	0.1183				1.54	0.50
G111	45.26	2.01	18.49	8.80	0.14	2.41	12.92	3.89	2.06	0.59	0.1996	0.2981				1.99	0.42
G112	47.42	1.78	17.17	10.25	0.20	4.04	9.80	4.47	2.47	0.65	0.1573	0.1669				0.89	0.62
G113	50.61	1.90	17.17	9.53	0.20	2.98	6.75	5.57	3.71	0.97	0.2308	0.0342		1.17	0.07	0.67	0.21
G114	49.06	1.94	17.90	9.33	0.20	3.24	7.82	5.31	3.37	0.82	0.1962	0.0778				0.45	1.17
G115	51.16	1.77	17.04	9.15	0.21	2.99	6.90	4.93	3.69	1.10	0.2037	0.0165				0.53	0.86
G116	47.98	2.00	16.79	10.90	0.20	3.67	9.16	4.49	2.94	0.72	0.1694	0.1409				0.47	1.26
G117	44.92	1.97	17.92	9.19	0.17	3.32	12.16	3.76	1.99	0.57	0.1751	0.2844				2.41	0.42
G118	50.52	2.25	16.38	9.92	0.30	3.91	8.24	5.26	0.56	0.18	0.0560	0.0285				1.58	0.49
G120	44.77	1.70	18.03	10.69	0.17	4.21	12.30	3.80	2.10	0.58	0.1716	0.2006				0.76	0.71
G121	46.05	1.23	17.68	10.65	0.19	4.14	11.57	4.06	2.27	0.62	0.2022	0.1849				0.69	0.75
G122	47.30	1.21	19.13	9.54	0.17	3.65	8.83	5.18	2.75	0.80	0.2275	0.1385				0.69	0.69
G123	47.79	1.16	19.43	9.40	0.17	3.50	8.19	5.35	2.93	0.84	0.2405	0.1279		0.93	0.07	0.86	0.18
G124	45.48	1.37	17.59	11.08	0.20	4.20	12.27	3.74	2.10	0.61	0.1797	0.1914		0.99	0.06	0.98	0.17
G125	50.05	1.89	17.15	9.13	0.17	3.41	6.90	5.41	3.63	1.09	0.2536	0.0268		0.84	0.07	0.80	0.19
G126	44.44	1.75	17.72	11.16	0.19	4.19	12.22	3.69	2.02	0.59	0.1764	0.2000				1.02	0.63
G127	44.78	1.54	17.46	11.54	0.19	4.17	12.43	3.83	2.04	0.57	0.1784	0.1997		0.65	0.06	0.72	0.20
G128	51.05	1.40	15.62	9.82	0.19	3.12	7.29	5.42	2.63	0.99	0.2062	0.0162				1.49	0.49
G129	44.63	1.98	18.01	9.62	0.16	3.02	11.99	3.55	2.02	1.01	0.1682	0.2633				2.39	0.44
G130	45.32	2.03	18.59	8.94	0.12	2.49	12.25	3.82	2.10	0.57	0.1823	0.2757				2.24	0.41
G131	47.54	1.77	17.40	10.50	0.19	3.51	9.74	4.49	2.72	0.69	0.1763	0.1366				0.69	0.75
G132	47.66	1.83	17.40	10.23	0.20	3.17	10.05	4.59	2.60	0.70	0.1698	0.1429				0.78	0.67
G133	49.58	2.22	16.98	8.74	0.16	3.49	7.05	5.44	3.66	1.15	0.2389	0.0426				0.83	0.55
G134	50.42	2.04	17.30	8.43	0.17	3.37	6.96	5.57	3.75	1.07	0.2283	0.0350				0.44	1.11
G135	50.40	1.79	16.67	9.54	0.20	3.31	6.89	5.36	3.55	1.11	0.2031	0.0232				0.60	0.78
G136	46.00	1.28	18.14	9.55	0.15	4.07	11.86	4.02	2.32	0.66	0.2001	0.1734				1.03	0.54
G138	49.14	1.09	15.95	11.09	0.25	3.52	9.22	3.90	2.02	0.61	0.1751	0.1569				1.87	0.52
G139	49.12	1.50	17.64	9.51	0.21	3.06	7.98	4.21	2.57	0.73	0.2039	0.1864				2.06	0.44

Table H.7: EPMA data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass ($n = 169$) *cont.*

No.	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	Cl	S	F	Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	s.d.	VBD	s.d.
G140	51.50	1.51	15.78	8.98	0.22	2.18	9.16	4.64	2.79	0.83	0.2552	0.1249				1.36	0.46
G141	45.26	2.01	17.51	9.47	0.18	2.92	11.55	3.64	1.93	0.57	0.1604	0.2511				3.06	0.42
G142	47.18	1.88	17.84	9.92	0.16	2.94	10.12	4.32	2.32	0.64	0.1662	0.1823				1.53	0.49
G143	46.58	1.89	17.68	9.85	0.17	2.91	10.65	4.15	2.13	0.63	0.1557	0.2055				1.99	0.46
G144	47.50	1.87	17.67	9.40	0.20	2.56	9.99	4.23	2.21	0.69	0.1531	0.1659				2.26	0.43
G145	47.67	1.82	17.42	9.59	0.20	2.91	9.79	4.90	2.42	0.68	0.1624	0.1514				1.51	0.48
G146	44.07	2.03	17.45	10.09	0.18	3.20	12.45	3.56	2.05	0.56	0.1872	0.3275				2.56	0.45
G147	47.06	1.80	17.09	9.75	0.16	3.81	9.41	4.88	2.37	0.70	0.1386	0.1606				1.77	0.47
G148	47.36	1.87	17.18	10.31	0.19	3.82	9.33	4.82	2.95	0.71	0.1574	0.1076				0.73	0.71
G149	46.24	1.54	19.17	8.28	0.15	2.55	10.37	4.31	2.58	0.75	0.2581	0.3771				2.36	0.38
G150	45.65	1.98	18.77	9.40	0.16	2.27	12.17	3.84	1.86	0.56	0.1503	0.2663				1.96	0.44
G151	47.01	1.88	17.43	10.52	0.20	4.25	9.96	4.16	2.12	0.61	0.1581	0.1769				0.95	0.61
G152	46.27	1.86	18.39	9.03	0.14	3.07	11.08	4.16	2.02	0.63	0.1804	0.3281				1.91	0.43
G153	47.50	1.79	17.25	10.18	0.21	3.59	9.78	4.68	2.36	0.68	0.1618	0.1476				1.07	0.56
G154	52.44	1.62	16.15	8.82	0.18	2.78	6.78	5.10	3.28	0.98	0.1552	0.0100				1.15	0.48
G155	47.40	1.79	17.20	10.08	0.16	3.90	9.72	4.40	2.38	0.67	0.1681	0.1618				1.27	0.53
G156	47.90	1.72	17.38	9.86	0.16	3.98	9.27	4.49	2.45	0.67	0.1692	0.1614				1.15	0.53
G157	47.85	1.72	16.78	10.16	0.20	4.15	9.66	4.18	2.20	0.69	0.1578	0.1476				1.37	0.52
G158	47.28	1.80	17.24	10.02	0.19	4.07	9.50	4.34	2.45	0.67	0.1814	0.1681				1.36	0.51
G159	47.39	1.78	17.14	9.57	0.19	4.33	8.75	4.51	2.39	0.67	0.1532	0.1518				1.99	0.45
G160	46.66	1.49	15.74	11.89	0.19	2.85	11.59	3.73	1.72	0.47	0.1801	0.2061				2.10	0.55
G161	46.57	1.72	16.41	10.69	0.19	2.83	11.84	3.67	1.84	0.59	0.1511	0.2090				2.15	0.49
G162	46.80	1.84	16.82	10.43	0.20	2.79	11.11	4.04	1.96	0.60	0.1529	0.2212				2.00	0.49
G163	47.28	1.82	17.05	10.85	0.22	3.92	9.25	5.05	2.81	0.69	0.1585	0.1308				0.43	1.49
G164	44.46	2.19	18.35	8.25	0.14	2.17	13.92	3.72	1.93	0.60	0.1905	0.3747				2.55	0.38
G165	48.05	1.78	18.10	9.95	0.19	3.85	8.88	4.23	2.87	0.59	0.1649	0.0914				0.78	0.65
G166	44.42	1.96	16.84	9.05	0.15	3.01	13.02	3.48	1.99	0.59	0.1789	0.3282				3.38	0.40
G168	44.61	1.83	17.73	10.33	0.17	3.37	11.32	3.61	1.86	0.55	0.1751	0.2692				2.79	0.46
G169	44.74	1.83	17.58	10.26	0.15	3.44	11.28	3.46	1.83	0.55	0.1828	0.2696				2.95	0.45

Table H.7: EPMA data on melt inclusions, embayments, and matrix glass ($n = 169$) *cont.*

No.	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	FeO _T	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	Cl	S	F	Fe ²⁺ /Fe _T	s.d.	VBD	s.d.
G170	44.89	1.74	17.02	10.62	0.19	4.32	10.87	3.38	1.76	0.52	0.1548	0.2643				2.82	0.47
G171	47.89	1.65	17.22	10.38	0.21	3.25	8.94	5.08	2.49	1.09	0.2196	0.0787				0.94	0.61
G172	47.69	1.53	17.79	10.86	0.22	3.56	9.86	4.59	2.36	0.83	0.1765	0.0864				0.21	-0.97
G173	47.46	1.86	17.08	10.79	0.23	3.35	10.27	4.53	2.29	0.68	0.2227	0.1016				0.68	0.78
G174	47.85	1.37	17.62	10.94	0.23	3.27	9.85	4.88	2.38	0.80	0.2052	0.0914				0.23	-1.36
G175	49.93	2.01	16.75	9.19	0.18	3.07	6.47	5.75	3.93	1.15	0.2202	0.0269				0.86	0.57
G176	47.49	1.41	17.46	11.15	0.23	3.50	10.30	4.53	2.23	0.72	0.1890	0.0866				0.36	2.86
G178	47.69	1.87	16.92	10.49	0.20	3.92	9.95	3.88	2.28	0.65	0.1556	0.1106				1.21	0.56
G179	47.43	1.96	17.22	10.57	0.20	3.32	10.49	3.99	2.15	0.72	0.1368	0.1256				1.07	0.59
G180	48.65	1.84	17.15	10.53	0.21	3.81	9.64	3.81	2.28	0.76	0.1263	0.0524				0.69	0.75
G181	49.10	1.78	17.46	9.57	0.17	3.54	8.69	4.79	2.58	0.77	0.1267	0.0248				0.91	0.58
G182	47.10	1.80	17.14	10.09	0.16	3.58	10.04	4.56	2.33	0.62	0.1670	0.1738				1.46	0.51
G183	47.74	1.78	17.43	9.99	0.17	3.61	9.84	4.35	2.54	0.70	0.1915	0.1689				0.96	0.58
G184	47.43	1.88	17.29	10.16	0.19	3.27	9.90	4.42	2.55	0.67	0.1580	0.1525				1.24	0.54
G185	49.09	1.41	16.13	9.22	0.24	1.89	12.13	4.17	1.78	0.62	0.1944	0.2820				1.91	0.44
G186	46.46	1.76	17.50	9.49	0.17	1.92	12.40	3.80	1.97	0.55	0.1810	0.2756				2.36	0.43
G187	44.90	1.78	17.53	10.22	0.17	4.31	10.66	3.72	1.85	0.56	0.1596	0.2150				2.61	0.46
G188	45.50	1.83	17.96	10.09	0.16	3.31	10.93	3.70	1.89	0.58	0.1732	0.2038				2.44	0.46
G190	52.02	1.24	15.18	9.67	0.22	2.92	6.62	5.30	3.42	1.07	0.1230	0.0064				1.45	0.49
G191	44.39	1.87	17.36	9.35	0.15	3.77	12.08	3.48	1.96	0.54	0.1821	0.2903				3.10	0.41
G192	46.90	1.70	17.02	10.38	0.17	3.62	10.23	4.77	2.37	0.63	0.1689	0.1664				1.19	0.55
G193	44.75	2.02	18.08	9.19	0.18	2.22	12.74	3.60	1.91	0.60	0.1709	0.3210				2.86	0.41
G194	50.96	1.78	16.91	9.31	0.21	3.00	6.54	5.33	3.84	1.13	0.2197	0.0267				0.47	1.09
G195	47.55	1.70	17.83	9.76	0.17	3.41	8.74	4.67	2.60	0.73	0.1907	0.1768				1.63	0.48

Notes: No. is the unique identifier for each glass (G) analysis (Table H.4). EPMA data collected as described in Section 6.3.4. Elements/oxides are given in wt%. Errors of one standard deviation (*s.d.*) given in *italics*.